

(2)

PUBLIC LIBRARY
CITY OF DETROIT

NOVEMBER

THE

1905

AMERICAN MONTHLY

ILLUSTRATED

REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

The New Note in Politics

The Driving Power of Life Insurance

Russia's First Parliament, the Duma

Rural Ireland and the New Land Law

A Notable Jewish Anniversary

The Movement for Church Federation

Lessons in Sanitation from Japan

Park Playgrounds for City Children

Illustrated Features, Cartoons, "Leading Articles," and Book Notes



Copyright 1905, Armour & Company

Armour's Extract of Beef Calendar Offer

Our 1906 Calendar presents six new heads, typifying ideal American womanhood, drawn by the following well known artists: C. Allen Gilbert, Henry Hutt, Harrison Fisher, Thomas Mitchell Peirce, Hazel Martyn and F. S. Manning. Arranged in six sheets (size, 10 x 15), tied with ribbon for hanging, will be sent postpaid to any address on receipt of twenty-five cents or metal cap from a jar of

ARMOUR'S EXTRACT of BEEF

The Best Extract of the Best Beef for Soups, Sauces, Gravies and Beef Tea.

Art Plate Offer We have a small edition of calendar designs as art plates (11 x 17 inches), for framing or portfolio. Single plates will be mailed postpaid for twenty-five cents each, or the six complete, by prepaid express, \$1.00. One metal cap from jar of Extract good for single sheet, or six caps for complete set.

Armour & Company, Chicago

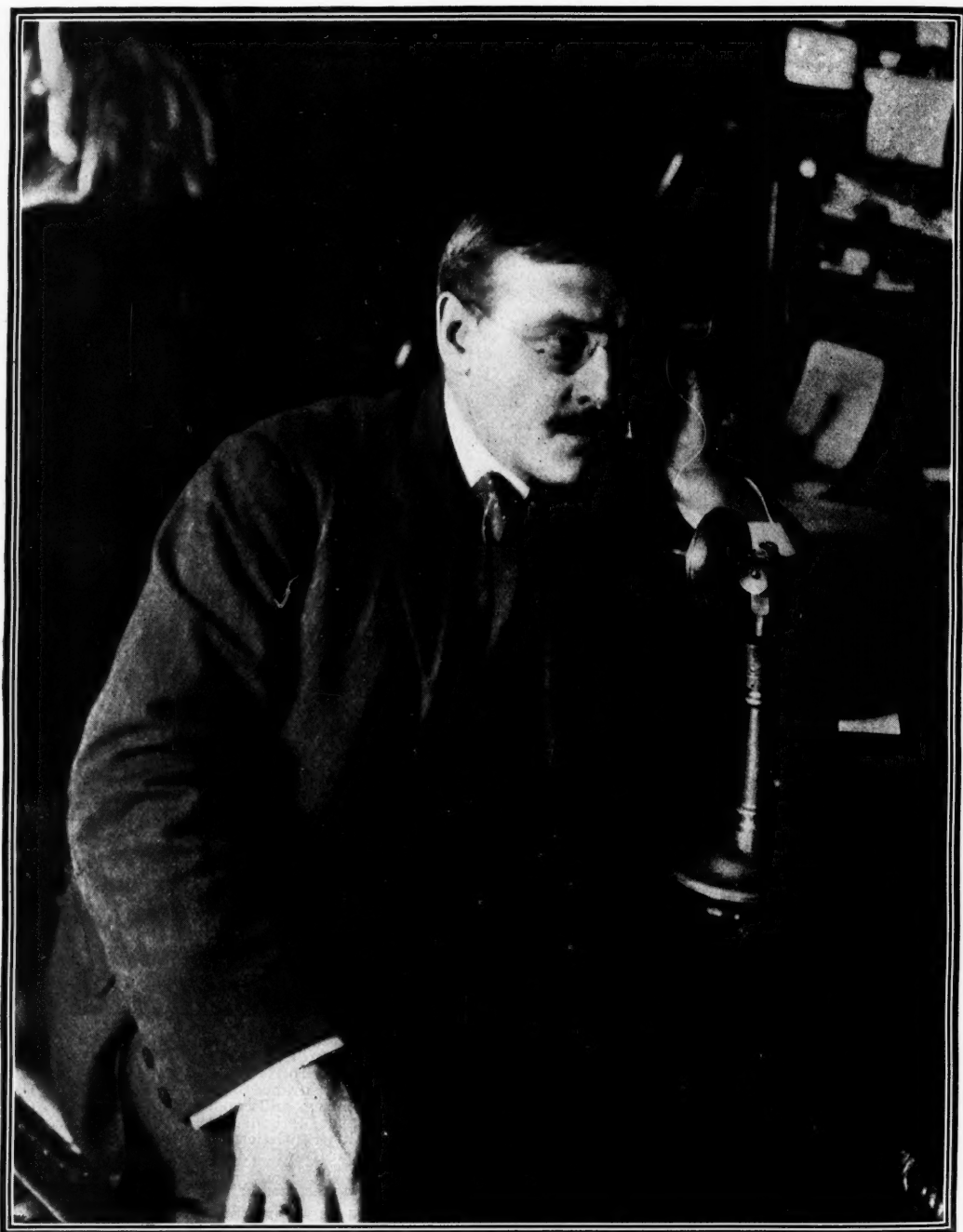
THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

CONTENTS FOR NOVEMBER, 1905.

William Travers Jerome.....	Frontispiece	The Driving Power of Life Insurance.....	551
The Progress of the World—		By D. P. Kingsley.	
A Stirring Election Season.....	515	The Jew in American History.....	556
An Independent Mood.....	515	By Max J. Kohler.	
The Money Power in Politics.....	515	Rural Ireland as It Is To-Day.....	561
The Contest in New York.....	515	By Plummer F. Jones.	
Mr. Ivins as a Candidate.....	516	With illustrations.	
Mr. Hearst's Public Ownership Party.....	517	The Workings of the Irish Land Law.....	572
McClellan's Candidacy.....	517	By Thomas W. Russell, M.P.	
A Hard Triangular Fight.....	518	The Playground City.....	574
Jerome,—the Leading Personality.....	518	By G. W. Harris.	
A Man of Heroic Quality.....	519	With illustrations.	
The Big Fight in Philadelphia.....	520	Russia's First Parliament, the Duma.....	581
Corporations Involved.....	520	By W. T. Stead.	
The Present Issue.....	520	Lessons for America in the Japanese Army	
How Reform Is Working.....	520	Medical Service.....	584
New Jersey and the Corporations.....	521	By Louis L. Seaman.	
Chicago and the Street Railways.....	522	The Sanitation of Japan's Navy.....	587
San Francisco's Campaign.....	522	By S. Suzuki.	
The Ohio Contest.....	523	A Great Federation of American Churches... ..	591
The Malign Cox Machine.....	524	By George Perry Morris.	
Economic Questions in Massachusetts.....	524	Church Federation in England.....	592
The Issues in Rhode Island.....	525	By G. Campbell Morgan.	
Again the Corporations as an Issue.....	526	Text of the Russo-Japanese Treaty.....	596
The Maryland Situation.....	526	Leading Articles of the Month—	
The Insurance Discussion.....	526	The Peace and After.....	598
Good Results to Be Gained.....	527	A Japanese View of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.....	600
The President in the South.....	528	The Rival Claims to Saghalien.....	603
Telling Speeches and Warm Welcome.....	528	The Secret of Japanese Naval Success.....	604
Panama Affairs.....	528	The Riots in the Russian Oil Fields.....	605
Measures for Congress.....	528	What the Russians Themselves Think of the	
Some Foreign Questions.....	529	Duma.....	606
Again the Statehood Controversy.....	529	"What Ails Russia?"—A German View.....	607
International Sanitation.....	530	The Case for Sweden.....	608
Zionism and American Judaism.....	531	Ellen Key, the "Inspired Swedish Enthusiast".....	609
Cuba's Political Quarrels.....	531	How Germany Made Her Merchant Marine.....	610
South American Affairs.....	531	Is an Anglo-German War Possible?.....	611
Affairs in the United Kingdom.....	532	Nelson and Trafalgar.....	611
Britain's Larger Politics.....	532	What May Be Expected from the New Dutch	
Australian and Indian Problems.....	533	Parliament.....	612
An Agreement on Morocco.....	533	Spain's Economic Advance.....	613
Sweden and Norway Separate.....	534	Our Naturalist-President.....	614
As to Possible Russian Aggression.....	534	How Europe Aids the Unemployed.....	615
What Is Austria-Hungary?.....	535	The Student Christian Movement.....	616
Constitution of the Dual Monarchy.....	535	The Eclipse of the Sun.....	617
Emperor <i>versus</i> the Hungarian People.....	536	The Benefits from the Calabrian Earthquakes.....	619
The Peace of Portsmouth Ratified.....	536	The Significance of an Increasing Population.....	620
"All the Russias" Demand Reforms.....	537	Huge Scheme to Regulate the Nile.....	621
Radical Attitude of the Zemstvos.....	537	The Cape to Cairo Railway.....	622
Japan Still Dissatisfied with the Peace Terms—	538	A State Life-Insurance System: The Next Step?.....	624
—but Accepts Them Philosophically.....	538	Life Insurance as an Economic Factor.....	625
Japan After the Peace.....	538	Life Insurance Methods.....	626
China's Awakening to Consciousness.....	539	The Mortality Statistics of the Twelfth Census.....	627
A Modern Chinese Army.....	539	The Railroad Rate.....	628
With portraits and other illustrations.		Can Plants Feel?.....	630
Record of Current Events.....	540	With portraits, maps, and other illustrations.	
With portraits and other illustrations.		Briefer Notes on Topics in the Periodicals... ..	631
Some Political Cartoons of the Season.....	544	The New Books.....	636
The International Sanitary Congress at Wash- ington.....	549	With portraits.	
With illustration.			
Sir Henry Irving.....	550		
With portrait.			

TERMS: \$3.00 a year in advance; 25 cents a number. Foreign postage \$1.00 a year additional. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible, in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters, and Newsdealers receive subscriptions. (Subscriptions to the English REVIEW OF REVIEWS, which is edited and published by Mr. W. T. Stead in London, may be sent to this office, and orders for single copies can also be filled, at the price of \$2.50 for the yearly subscription, including postage, or 25 cents for single copies.) THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 13 Astor Place, New York City.



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

WILLIAM TRAVERS JEROME IN HIS OFFICE.

(Mr. Jerome, the New York district attorney, who is an independent candidate for reelection, represents in a typical way the spirit of the present political season, as shown from New York and Philadelphia to San Francisco, which is one of revolt against bossism, graft, and dishonesty.)

PUBLISHED BY
No. 050. R3 (2)
DETROIT, MICH.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

OCT 27 1905

Review of Reviews.

DETROIT, MICH.

VOL. XXXII.

NEW YORK, NOVEMBER, 1905.

No. 5.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*A Stirring
Election
Season.*

The 7th of November is election day. A year ago we elected a President of the United States and a new Congress. A year hence we shall elect another national House of Representatives. Last year there were also many important State elections, and next year there will again be many. This year, the important State elections are relatively few. There are, however, local elections pending in all parts of the country, and it would be a great mistake to regard this "off year" as an unimportant one from the standpoint of American political life and progress. The truth is that the present political season is proving itself to be one of the most significant that the country has ever known. The very fact that—from the standpoint of party organization and conspicuous personal leadership—the national political pot is not furiously boiling has given better opportunity for a presentation of some of the principles underlying popular government, and a study of actual conditions.

*An
Independent
Mood.*

The press of the country has perhaps never shown itself more virile or more independent in its treatment of public questions, and the people have never shown a more active disposition to think for themselves and to vote along the line of their convictions. Bold and outspoken local leadership against machine politics, or against corrupt or inefficient methods, has never found such widespread encouragement as has been given to it almost everywhere this year. The remarkable rise of the people of Philadelphia, against the fraud and corruption that have so long dominated that city, is contributing a more important chapter to American political history than an ordinary Congressional or even a Presidential election, for it is symptomatic of profound changes for the better. The details, to which we shall make further allusion in subsequent paragraphs, are too local for outsiders to follow, nor is it necessary that they should be understood in other

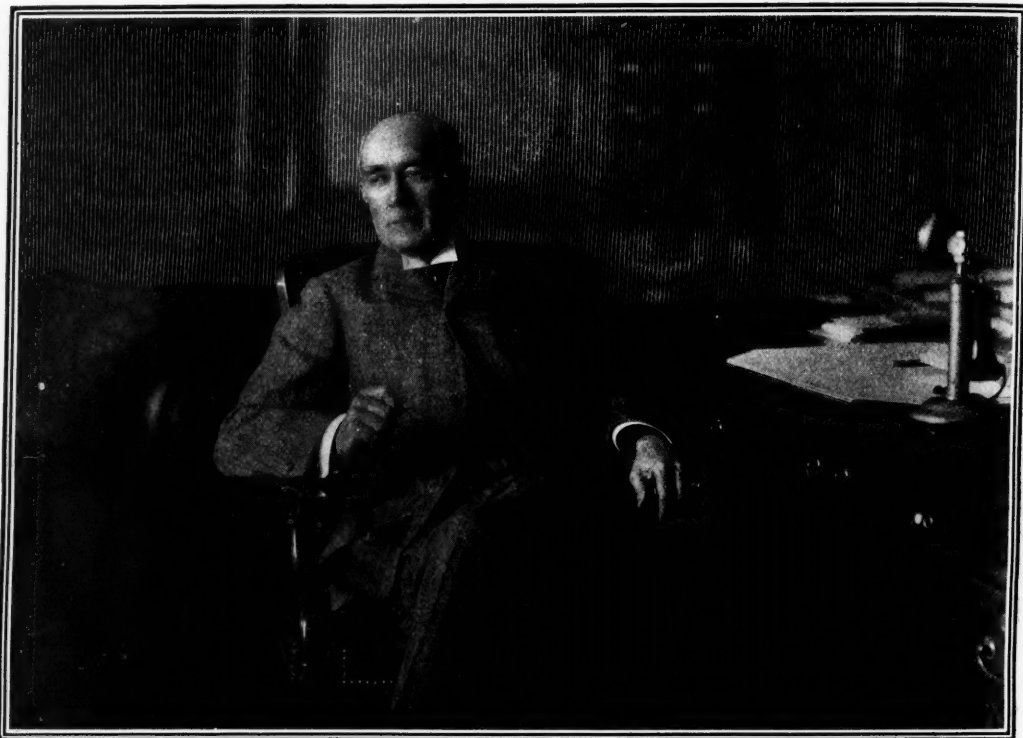
States. The main facts, however, are of the highest importance for people in every part of the Union. It is of national consequence that the people of Philadelphia have found honest leadership, have awakened from their lethargy, and have been able to deal a series of fatal blows at the seemingly invulnerable ring of corrupt Republican politicians who had for so long a time ruled the city and the State for purposes of private plunder.

*The Money
Power in
Politics.*

Everywhere the people are studying the relation of money to politics and administration. Rascality is under exposure as at no previous time in our political annals. The revelations of the insurance investigations in New York City have startled the whole country, as they have furnished object-lessons to illustrate the way in which the great corporations have been influencing legislation at the State capitals. Many of us have long understood the nature of the system under which the political machines have made themselves strong; but in order to strike effectively against such methods, it is necessary to bring out concrete facts. Thus, the outlook for a revival of honesty and of personal independence in politics is brighter, in view of the state of the public mind in this political season of 1905, than it has been for a great many years. The chief value, therefore, of the political season lies in its educational effect; and this is irrespective of the result in any particular electoral situation.

*The Contest
in
New York.*

Thus, it is wholly uncertain what the outcome of the great municipal contest in New York City will have proved to be when the votes are counted on the evening of November 7. Yet the campaign itself will have been one of the most instructive and important in the history of the city. In the earlier stages it seemed absolutely certain that Mayor McClellan and a full Tammany ticket would be elected,—unless all the opposition ele-



Copyright, 1905, by Pach Bros., New York.

HON. WILLIAM M. IVINS, REPUBLICAN NOMINEE FOR MAYOR OF NEW YORK.

ments should combine in good faith to support a remarkably strong candidate for mayor. Such a candidate was available in the person of the Hon. William Travers Jerome, with whose record as district attorney our readers are familiar. But the Citizens' Union could not prevail upon the Republicans, on the one hand, and the Municipal Ownership League, on the other, to join them in nominating Mr. Jerome. After repeated conferences, the fusion movement, which had in previous municipal campaigns accomplished so much for the city, fell to pieces. The Republicans, who are in a hopeless minority in New York City, determined to go their own way, having cut loose from the Citizens' Union, and having failed to agree upon a ticket with the Municipal Ownership League. The Citizens' Union, under the circumstances, did not attempt to bring forward a full municipal ticket, while the Republicans and the Municipal Ownership League proceeded separately.

Mr. Ivins as a Candidate. The Republicans, after repeated failures to secure a candidate for mayor—no prominent Republican wishing to lead so hopeless a cause—met with unexpected good-fortune in a quarter that had not at first

been thought of. Mr. William M. Ivins, returning from a trip abroad, was asked if he would take the nomination, and he promptly accepted. Mr. Ivins for ten or twelve years had been unknown in politics, but previous to that time he was exceedingly active and was regarded as the best-informed man in New York touching municipal affairs. He had served as City Chamberlain as an anti-Tammany Democrat, and had fought Tammany with great ability and success. While in recent years on national issues he has acted with the Republicans, he is as independent a man in politics as the country possesses; and from the very moment of his nomination, on October 12, he proceeded to assert his independence and to lay down his principles with refreshing candor and surprising vigor. It was not many hours before the whole city was aware that the Republicans had found a great candidate. Mr. Ivins did everything in his power to have the Republicans indorse Mr. Jerome for district attorney; but malign influences were at work which caused the machine organization of the one party, as of the other, to reject Mr. Jerome, who is the very embodiment of revolt against bossism and machine methods. Mr. Jerome's renomination for district attorney was

brought about by the filing of petitions, many thousands of names having been secured for that purpose. If Mr. Ivins' name could have been presented early in the attempt to unite upon a fusion ticket, there is much reason to believe he would have secured the defeat of Tammany Hall. For Mr. Ivins, as soon as nominated by the Republicans, took bold and radical steps in the direction of municipal ownership, declaring himself in favor of an immediate condemnation of the gas and electric lighting plants of New York City, in order that they might within a month or two after his election be in actual operation as municipal property. And in other matters besides the lighting system he took positions that would have satisfied the Municipal Ownership League with his qualifications as a fusion candidate.

But fusion had failed before Mr. Ivins was discovered; and the Municipal Ownership League had meanwhile proceeded on its own account. It persuaded Mr. William R. Hearst, the well-known newspaper proprietor and the real head of the Municipal Ownership League, to accept for himself the mayoralty nomination. It nominated for the comptrollership Mr. John Ford, who as a State Senator had given his name to the famous Ford franchise-tax law. Our readers will remem-

*Mr. Hearst's
Public Owner-
ship Party.*



HON. WILLIAM R. HEARST.

(Head of Municipal Ownership League and candidate for mayor.)



HON. JOHN FORD.

MR. J. G. PHELPS STOKES.

(Mr. Ford and Mr. Stokes are running on the Municipal Ownership League ticket, the one for comptroller and the other for president of the Board of Aldermen.)

ber that this measure, which was approved and signed by Theodore Roosevelt as governor, brings under taxation at their full market value the street railroads, gas companies, and other franchise-holding corporations that had managed to escape their fair share of tax burdens. It soon became evident that the Hearst-Ford ticket, which had several other strong names upon it, was likely to poll a heavy vote, and it was expected that this would be drawn principally from the ranks of voters who would otherwise have supported Mayor McClellan and the Tammany ticket. It was against the McClellan ticket that the Hearst attacks were principally made, and it was the constant endeavor of the managers of the Hearst campaign to fix upon Mr. McClellan the stigma of having favored and supported the gas monopoly in its objectionable franchise schemes.

*McClellan's
Candidacy.*

Undoubtedly Mayor McClellan has been strong with great numbers of the reputable business men of New York. He has, however, given the city a thoroughly Tammany administration, with all that the word implies. Furthermore, it has been

Copyright, 1905, by G. G. Balu, New York.



Copyright, 1905, by Brown Brothers, New York.

MAYOR GEORGE B. McCLELLAN.

(On the steps of his house, Washington Square North.)

well understood that in case of Mr. McClellan's success it is a part of the programme that he is to be nominated as the Democratic candidate for governor next year. If he were translated to Albany, the office of mayor would be filled for three long years of the four-year term by a certain Mr. McGowan, wholly unknown to the community at large, who is the Tammany nominee for President of the Board of Aldermen. Under the New York charter, the president of that board becomes mayor for the remainder of the term in case of the death or retirement of the elected mayor. Among conservative people there was evidently a strong desire to prevent

the election of Mr. Hearst, and a feeling at first that perhaps the best way to accomplish this would be to vote for Mr. McClellan.

*A Hard
Triangular
Fight.*

In three-cornered fights of this kind there often lurk great surprises, and it would be useless to make any prediction as to the results. If Mr. Ivins should be elected, the city would be certain of an administration not only brilliant, but so strong and efficient as to command the attention of municipal administrators throughout the world. If Mr. McClellan should be elected, things would go on as at present, with vast public interests exposed to Tammany rapacity. If Mr. Hearst should be elected, there would be a vigorous effort made to municipalize public services and to cripple the power of Tammany; but no one knows how efficient Mr. Hearst would prove to be as an administrator. He would act chiefly through others, and everything would depend upon his finding men of adequate qualities to carry on a successful administration. Mr. Ivins, on the other hand, would be a host in himself, inasmuch as he would probably be found, under the test of

a competitive examination, to possess a greater number of qualifications,—and in higher degree,—for the direction of the business of New York City than any other man of any party who could be named.

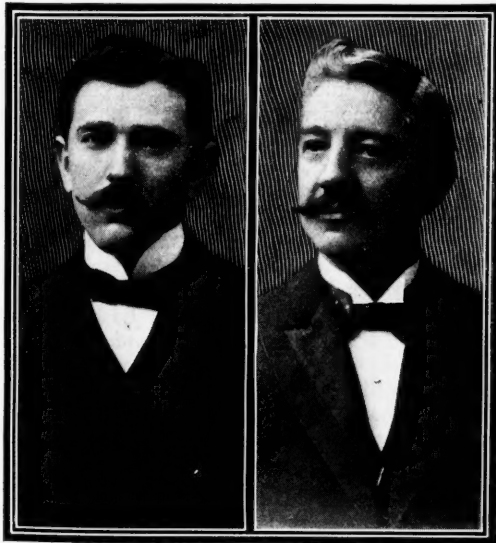
*Jerome,—
the Leading
Personality.*

The campaign has been a short one, but full of stirring appeals and genuine enthusiasm. Mr. Ivins, although nominated by the Republicans, proceeded at once to take charge of his own campaign, and he seems to have carried it on entirely at his own expense. The Hearst ticket has not only a group of personalities far above the common-

place running for the offices, such as Mr. John Ford for comptroller, Mr. J. G. Phelps Stokes for the presidency of the Board of Aldermen, Mr. Clarence Shearn for district attorney, and Mr. Bird S. Coler for president of the Borough of Brooklyn, but it is also supported by hosts of men in the ranks of organized labor, and by a considerable number of men of note who believe that the movement represents in a genuine way the cause of the people as against the bosses and the corporations. The most picturesque and impressive figure, however, of the entire campaign is that of District Attorney Jerome, rejected by all parties and factions, yet vastly stronger with the people of all parties than any other man in the city. If he should fail of reelection, it will be due merely to the difficulties that inhere in the voting of a split ticket under the existing arrangement of the ballot paper in party columns.

*A Man of
Heroic
Quality.*

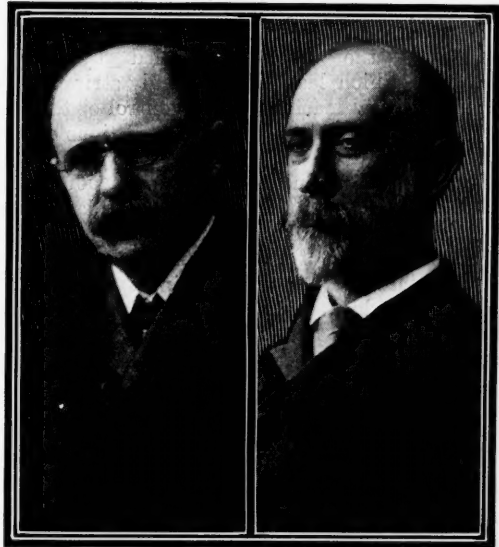
A great many people have believed that the election of Mr. Jerome under all the circumstances was the one supreme issue of the campaign. New York politics for a long period has been cursed by the domination of political machines built upon the foundation of plunder and "graft." These machines may quarrel about the division of the spoils, but in times of distress they stand together as against real reform. The powerful elements that do not want Jerome in the position of prosecuting attorney have been steadily increasing.



MR. HERMAN A. METZ.

MR. PATRICK F. M'GOWAN.

(The Tammany candidates for comptroller and president of the Board of Aldermen.)



MR. CHARLES E. TEALE.

MR. JAMES L. WELLS.

(The Republican candidates for comptroller and president of the Board of Aldermen.)

But the people want him and believe in him, and his personal campaign has been one prolonged ovation. The Citizens' Union has stood firmly by Jerome, and if he should be reelected, this independent movement in politics will have accomplished a notable result. Meanwhile, the Republicans, in making the strong nomination of Mr. Ivins for the mayoralty, made a weak and even farcical nomination for the district attorneyship, as if to render it the easier for the voters to split the ticket and vote for Jerome. This, of course, is what many thousand Republicans will do. Thus, there is strong hope that the most valiant figure in the public life of our American metropolis may come out of the fight victorious. It is a burdensome office that Mr. Jerome holds, and to be willing to take it for another four years' term is an evidence of courage and public spirit, in view of all the facts, that fairly entitles him to be regarded as a man of heroic mold. Mr. Jerome is not a man of cold calculation or of far-seeing ambition. He throws himself each day too recklessly and completely into his fight for public order and the protection of the plain people of New York to have any time left for scheming about his political future. But the harder he works at his tremendous tasks, the more certainly he is making himself a great national character. He is young, and he will carry far. The whole country has been following his gallant fight with sympathy and approval.

*The Big
Fight in
Philadelphia.*

Philadelphia, with this month's election, faces the first popular test of the civic revolt led by Mayor Weaver which last May suddenly stripped the local political machine of its control of the city executive. This exposed the operations of the ring, large and small. There was discovered evidence of fraudulent profits of \$2,000,000 to \$3,000,000 in filtration contracts and land speculations in boulevard schemes. Present reductions in the cost of street-cleaning, electric light, and asphalt paving are running from 10 to 25 per cent. below prices paid by the city under the ring's management. To illustrate by one small item—horse feed for fire-engine teams—the bill drops, under free competition, from \$200,000 to \$65,000. Graft ruled all, from assessments on all salaries, teachers included. Indictments, beginning with the filtration bureau head, culminated in evidence brought before the police court of collusion and conspiracy by "unbalanced" bids on tiling in a hospital building by the former Director of Public Safety and a brother-in-law of the local boss, who was unblushingly and flagrantly given all city building. The profits due to excessive prices, fraudulent contracts, or loose inspection are placed by competent judges at not less than \$3,000,000 to \$4,000,000 a year, distributed in various ways. No myth is more baseless than the view that these sums are absorbed by the little group of political leaders which figures before the public. These doubtless made fortunes; but they are but almoners and paymasters for the two allied forces which render their rule possible,—the public-service corporations and the army of political workers and ward leaders, which constitute a political condottiere, as directly engaged in plunder as any supporting an Italian city tyrant in the fifteenth or sixteenth centuries.

*Corporations
Involved.*

Three public-service corporations,—the United Gas Improvement Company, holding the lease of the city gas works; the local traction, and the local electric light company,—have lost, in the market value of their shares and bonds, some \$40,000,000. Much of this is the fall from exaggerated quotations due to speculative operations based on prospective profits from ring schemes, halted by Mayor Weaver's veto. But much also represents the plain certainty that if the revolt becomes revolution, and the revolution brings a new civic policy and polity, an honest lease will be made for the city's gas works two years hence, reducing gas to the consumer from \$1 per 1,000 cubic feet to 80 cents. The city traction company will be held to its charter obligations and forced

to reduce fares, and city arc lights will be reduced in yearly cost from \$103 to \$65,—a fair rate. The public service corporations' stake is no larger than that of the leading railroads which hold Philadelphia's gateways. They do not ostensibly enter the struggle, but they profit by an alliance with the State and local machines. Five powerful corporations—railroad, gas, transit, and electric—are in touch at every point,—passes, employment, contracts, organized votes, and special favors with the body of twenty thousand voters which works the polls. By places not merely in the city government (now freed), but in these corporations,—by petty grants, and by influencing banking capital, contractors, and professional men,—a strong, compact, disciplined force is supported and paid. Its ramifications penetrate every field,—education and charity (for both are subsidized), the courts, manufactures, and the labor unions.

*The
Present
Issue.*

The real issue before Philadelphia in its coming election is no mere struggle to punish fraud, reduce expenditure, and improve administration, though all these are involved, but whether the general body of citizens can free itself from a tyranny based on the alliance of the public-service corporations, the machine leaders, and the ward workers. When sudden revolt first smote the machine, in May, it was confidently expected that the general body of ward workers would follow the city administration and the Republican local organization pass under Mayor Weaver's control. But these workers are as much opposed as their leaders to honest competitive examinations. A check to fraudulent contracts has forced the discharge of some seven thousand to eight thousand men, creating dissatisfaction.

*How
Reform Is
Working.*

A reaction was inevitable. It has come in the struggle of the machine to retain power. But it faces for the first time an aroused city. A city party has been formed. It has met a most unexpected success in organizing 1,100 election districts. By concerted effort and the threat of arrest it has swept from the registry 56,000 names plainly fraudulent. With the police suppressing fraud instead of abetting it, an honest election is possible. The City Party convention to nominate a ticket was an amazing exhibition of civic enthusiasm. Most important of all, the small householder, the clerk, and the young professional man rallied to the new crusade. All the forces in the city that make for better things are united as never before. The machine (forced to withdraw a ticket of heelers) has,



HOW MAYOR WEAVER IS FIGHTING THE GANG WOLVES IN PHILADELPHIA.

(Adapted from a famous incident in the career of Davy Crockett.)—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

through a "citizens' committee," secured nominees at least personally respectable. Mayor Weaver's policy of gaining money for public improvement by economy and honesty, and refusing new loans for lesser purposes, that the city may be in a position to force a reduction on the price for gas two years hence by having credit enough untouched to take up the United Gas Company's lien on the city works, has made it possible to assert that improvement has been deliberately "obstructed." Should Philadelphia now vote against the ring, next winter's election of City Councils will see the end of the local machine, and the State election next fall, choosing a governor and a legislature, will bring near the defeat of the most powerful State machine in the land. Signs of revolt are already apparent all over the State, and have taken organized shape in several counties.

New Jersey and the Corporations. The State of New Jersey,—which lies between New York and Philadelphia, and which in its political and industrial life is more or less intimately associated

with both of those great cities,—grows constantly in manufacturing wealth and in complex conditions of population; and its public problems have become, in their way, quite as important as those of the two great commonwealths with which it is associated. For the greater part of the time, in recent decades, New Jersey, both in its State affairs and in its municipal and county government, has been held firmly in the grasp of a corrupt ring, but again and again revolt has lifted its head, and sometimes with great success. In recent weeks, millions of people in the eastern half of the country have had their attention called to the fight of a young political leader, Everett Colby by name, against a powerful combination of politics and public-service corporations that has ruled the more populous part of the State from Newark as a center. Mr. Colby is merely running for a seat in the State Senate; but his nomination and his campaign have meant the smashing of a machine that has been one of the most complete in its organization and one of the most powerful in the scope of its operations that the whole country can



HON. EVERETT COLBY, OF NEW JERSEY.

boast. The significance of the situation lies in the fact that Mr. Colby is leading a successful fight against the absolute control of local and State government by rich corporations which have managed party machines as an adjunct of their business. It is a contest that goes to the very foundation principles, and it is therefore to be looked upon as part and 'parcel of the great national movement which is likely to find its culmination at Washington this winter in the contest over the proposals of President Roosevelt.

Chicago and the Street Railways. In Chicago, municipal elections are held in the spring, and the public issues just now under discussion there are not to be brought this month to the test of the ballot-box. When Mayor Dunne was elected on a ticket demanding the immediate municipal ownership and operation of the street-railroad system of the city, it was the prediction of this magazine that he would find the task beset with too many difficulties for realization. The people of Chicago had fought their fight against corporation influences, and had won the victory. But it does not necessarily follow that municipal ownership and operation constitute the only relief from undue corporation influence, or from inadequacy in the rendering of public services. The City Council of Chicago has failed by a decisive vote to support Mayor Dunne's policy. A test vote of the City Council was had on October 16, and it stood 37 to 27 against municipal ownership. A standing committee of the council had been negotiating with the street-railway companies with a view to granting an extension of their expiring franchises. Mayor Dunne sent to the council an order directing that such negotiations should cease. The vote in question was upon approving the mayor's order, and was taken to indicate that the majority favored the granting of some kind of franchise. The council has, however, pledged itself not to pass any franchise ordinance without first having submitted the measure and secured public approval at the polls. The question has been so thoroughly canvassed that there is no danger that any franchise will be granted for an unduly long term, or that the interests of the city or of the people will be sacrificed. Thus, quite regardless of the question of public ownership and operation, the essential things will have been gained.

FOR STATE SENATOR

EVERETT COLBY

THIS RAILROAD MAIN STEM
WAS ELEVATED AT A COST TO SEWAGE OF \$1,500,000
\$75,000 A YEAR FOR THIRTY YEARS
TO PAY THE PRINCIPAL AND INTEREST OF THIS DEBT.
THIS PROPERTY
IMPROVED BY THE TAXPAYER, PAID TAX AT THE RATE OF
\$5 PER \$1,000
OF VALUATION.
MAJOR LENTZ
AND THE COUNTY COMMITTEE OPPOSED THE LAW WHICH FIRED THIS RATE.

FOR STATE SENATOR

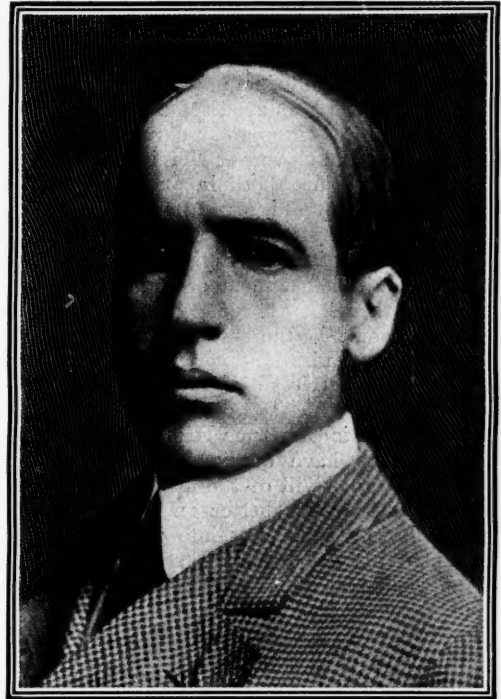
EVERETT COLBY

THIS TAXPAYER'S HOUSE
WAS ERECTED WITH THE CITY OF SEWAGE CONTRIBUTION
THE MONEY OF THE OWNER
NOT ONE CENT
THIS PROPERTY
IMPROVED BY THE OWNER, PAID TAX AT THE RATE OF
\$22.70 PER \$1,000
OF VALUATION.
EVERETT COLBY
WAS THE SAME RATE THAT THE OTHERS PAID.

A SAMPLE (REDUCED) OF THE BOLD NEWSPAPER ADVERTISEMENTS AND POSTERS USED IN MR. COLBY'S CAMPAIGN.

The most thorough going municipal contest of this season is being waged in San Francisco. The labor unions have for some years been all-powerful in that city, and they have already given Mayor Schmitz, formerly of the musicians' union, four years at the head of the municipal government. They have now put him in nomination for a third two-year term. At the outset of his first admin-

istration, it was generally believed that his intentions were excellent. He soon fell, however, under influences that were, to say the least, exceedingly unfortunate. He seemed lacking in independence of judgment and in a stern sense of official duty. In many respects, the affairs of the city have been carried on in a lax and scandalous fashion. It is charged that there has been corruption and graft on a large scale. However that may be, the business men of San Francisco have risen with all their energy to see if a better state of things cannot be brought about. Republicans and Democrats have joined hands in a fusion movement, led by a brilliant young lawyer, John A. Partridge by name, who heads the ticket as candidate for mayor. Mr. Partridge at present holds the office of city attorney, and he is said to be a man of as much fearlessness and independence as Mr. Folk was reputed to have had in St. Louis, or as Mr. Jerome shows in New York. Mr. Partridge's supporters declare that this is a campaign against graft, and nothing else. Every effort is being made to show workingmen that there is no real division between their interests and those of the people who are supporting Mr. Partridge. It is claimed that all those elements of the community that are adverse to decency and order are supporting the existing régime. It is interesting to see the emergence of new men of high character and splendid resources of courage and ability above the political horizon. If Mr. Partridge is elected mayor of San Francisco, he will soon become a man of mark, and the whole country will find itself hopefully



HON. JOHN S. PARTRIDGE, OF SAN FRANCISCO, FUSION CANDIDATE FOR MAYOR.

watching his career. The real control of the Union Labor party which backs Mayor Schmitz is in the hands of a shrewd lawyer named Abraham Ruef. The success of that party in two previous elections was due to the manner in which the electoral situation was split up with several tickets in the field. This year the support of Partridge as against Schmitz is so general and solid that there seems a strong probability of success.



MAYOR DUNNE, OF CHICAGO, AS A FORTUNE-TELLER IS GIVING MR. HEARST SOME LIGHT ON THE SUBJECT OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

From the Tribune (Chicago).

The Ohio Contest.

There has been manifest in the State campaigns an endeavor to utilize the uprising of the people against bossism and corporation influence in politics for the benefit of one candidate or another. Thus, in the Ohio contest, the Democratic candidate for governor, Hon. John M. Pattison, opened his campaign with a declaration as follows: "It is a battle on State issues alone. It is a battle for clean politics, honest and economical administration of public affairs, and against bossism and graft." Mr. Pattison arraigned Governor Herrick "for his subservience to the great boss of Ohio." It is certainly true that the Republican party of Ohio is not benefited in the estimation of good Buckeye citizens any more than it is en-

joying enhanced respect from the country at large by reason of the control of its affairs which has now been gained by Mr. Cox, who was formerly the boss of Cincinnati alone. Ohio Republicanism has produced some great men, and has much in its history and record to be honestly commended, and Governor Herrick is personally an attractive figure, both in public and in private, who wins the hearts of men by his estimable qualities. But there has come about a condition of affairs in Ohio Republicanism that has led many a judicious member of the Republican party in other States to remark that a "thorough licking" would be the best thing that could happen to the organization over which Mr. George B. Cox now exercises his dictatorship.

The Malign Cox Machine. It is Governor Herrick's misfortune to have obtained the support and good-will of the boss at a time when it would have been better on all accounts for him to have stepped out into the open field as the antagonist of bossism and a leader of a movement to deliver the Republican party of Ohio from its present thralldom. It is to be deplored that from the position at first of merely accepting the consent of Cox to Governor Herrick's re-nomination the governor and his friends should have been driven to the step of defending Cox



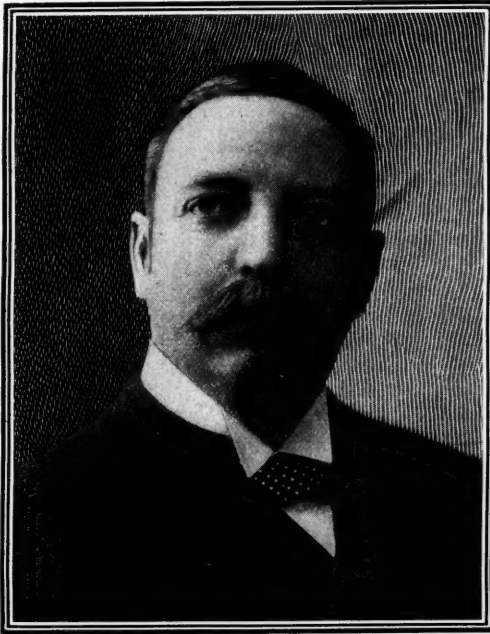
SENATOR FORAKER IN A LEGENDARY RÔLE.

"And King Canute, being overpersuaded, fared forth to the shore and in a loud voice spake unto the tide commanding that it should recede. But the waves beat upon the King so that he was forced to flee."—Old Legend.

From the *Leader* (Cleveland.)

from the platform and declaring him to be a good Republican and no worse a boss than the Democratic Mayor Johnson, of Cleveland. The attempt of the Republican war-horses to force a campaign on the tariff and other national issues flatly failed, especially in view of the fact that Senators Dick and Foraker were taking positions regarded as out of harmony with the views of President Roosevelt. It is not a good year for Republicans in Ohio or anywhere else to attempt to make election capital by turning their campaign into a rebuke of the President for desiring some revision of the tariff and for standing firmly by his demand for the better regulation of interstate commerce and the control of corporations. Ohio seems to have a normal Republican majority of about two hundred thousand, and it is scarcely to be expected that the Democrats could this year win in the face of that fact, and of President Roosevelt's popularity. But they will make gains. It is not that the Ohio Democrats are better than the Ohio Republicans, but that the Republican party is the one that holds the reins, and is therefore subject to criticism. Sooner or later, the party must rid itself of Cox and all his methods, and start afresh on clean, honest principles, or else go down to deserved and ignominious defeat. That this feeling is strong throughout Ohio there are many evidences. Many of the Republican candidates for local offices feel themselves strongly handicapped by the reproach that the Cox machine has brought upon the once honorable name of their party. Whatever may be the outcome of the voting in Ohio on the seventh day of this month, it is certain that a close analysis will show a strong undercurrent of revolt against the subjection of the Republican party to the domination of an odious boss backed by those corrupting influences that have in so many of our States and communities made politics the servant of business corporations.

Economic Questions in Massachusetts. The campaign in Massachusetts has been comparatively free from the charges of bossism and corruption that have characterized this season's politics elsewhere. Doubtless Massachusetts is not free from the taint of commercialism in politics, but corruption and graft are not in control there, as in some other States. The present contest for the governorship has been marked by a significant discussion of the economic policy of the country as it bears upon the industrial progress of Massachusetts and of New England. The Hon. Charles W. Bartlett, the Democratic candidate for the governorship, is a well-known Boston lawyer. He is making his contest on a demand for prac-



HON. CURTIS GUILD, JR.

(Republican nominee for governor of Massachusetts.)



GEN. CHARLES W. BARTLETT.

(Democratic candidate for governor of Massachusetts.)

tical tariff-revision, and reciprocity with Canada. His views are expressed as follows: "For the benefit of Massachusetts' industries, I believe that Congress should place upon the free list hides, coal, iron ore, lumber, and wood pulp, and that duties upon manufactured and other articles be reduced wherever possible. I am also convinced that reciprocal trade treaties should be made by this country with Canada and other nations." This declaration expresses the sentiments, not only of the Democrats of Massachusetts, but of a great part of the Republicans. There was an effort, indeed, to get something of this specific sort in the Republican platform. A sharp Republican split on the tariff question was, however, averted by the adoption of a somewhat vaguely worded compromise plank, which is regarded as a partial victory for the reformers. The Republican candidate for governor, Hon. Curtis Guild, Jr., is favorable to moderate tariff reform and reciprocity treaties, while the candidate for lieutenant-governor, Mr. Edwin S. Draper, is classed with the uncompromising high-tariff men. The Democratic candidate for lieutenant-governor is Mr. Henry M. Whitney, a prominent business man, whose addresses in the campaign have been influential. He has argued that some of the leading industries of Massachusetts have been at a stand-

still for years past, and that their further development requires free raw materials and better access to foreign markets. Last year, Massachusetts gave the Roosevelt Presidential ticket a rousing majority, while at the same moment piling up a large majority for Mr. Douglas, the Democratic candidate for governor. What it will do this year nobody can clearly foretell.

*The
Issues in
Rhode Island.*

Rhode Island is a very small State, but it is venerable, and its political history has from the beginning of the nation's life been of more than local interest. It has on hand this year a campaign that opened late but is full of serious meaning to the people of the little New England commonwealth. There are always two dominating local issues in Rhode Island. One is of fundamental character; and it will always be in the forefront until it is settled in a modern, logical way. That issue has to do with the basis of representation in the Legislature. Rhode Island clings to its early constitutional forms, and its representation by old town divisions has become grossly unequal. It is the sort of condition that existed in England when the Reform Bill of 1832 abolished rotten boroughs and equalized representation in the House of Commons. The State Senate is controlled by members from a number of small rural towns,

having in the aggregate a very small minority of the population of the State. The Democratic candidate for the governorship is Dr. Lucius F. C. Garvin, who has already served two annual terms as governor, but who was defeated last year when the wave of Roosevelt Republicanism saved the local State ticket. It is to be remembered, however, that whereas Roosevelt carried Rhode Island by 16,706 votes, Dr. Garvin came within 856 of reelection. He stands for a new constitution and a modernizing of the representative system.

Again the Corporations as an Issue.

The Republicans have renominated the present governor, George H. Utter, and their entire State ticket of last year. They go so far as to consent to an amendment of the constitution increasing the membership of the lower house to 100 from its present membership of 72. This would give some additional representation to the cities and large towns. But they do not favor any change in the Senate, which is kept securely in Republican control by the political complexion of the rural towns, which now elect a majority of the 38 members. On this issue, Dr. Garvin and the Democrats are unquestionably in the right. The other dominant issue in Rhode Island politics is that of ring rule and undue corporation influence. It is asserted that there is a close working alliance between Senator Aldrich and the group of Republican leaders and the powerful street-railway and other concentrated corporation interests that have their center at Providence. The Democrats, under Dr. Garvin's lead, are waging war upon this combination. It is a rather curious sign of the times that Democrats in many parts of the country have been openly indorsing President Roosevelt's leading policies. Thus, the Rhode Island Democratic platform offers Democratic support to President Roosevelt in any plans he may have for tariff-revision, and congratulates him upon his policy for the better control of the railroads. This platform, apropos of recent disclosures in New York, comes out strongly for State as well as national legislation to prevent the corporations from contributing to political funds. It also favors the election of United States Senators by direct vote.

The Maryland Situation.

In Maryland, the campaign does not turn chiefly upon the candidates for office, nor yet upon national issues, but almost wholly upon one question, which has taken a powerful hold upon the convictions or the prejudices of the voters. The issue is embodied in the so-called Poe amendment to the State constitution. This amendment, if adopted, would

probably disfranchise about thirty thousand negro voters. It would also make it possible for those in authority to exclude many thousands of naturalized voters from the franchise if election boards chose to exercise their powers arbitrarily. Under this amendment, which is to be accepted or rejected by the voters on the 7th of November, the candidate who appears for registration on the election rolls must be able to read the constitution, or at least to explain its provisions when read to him. Any person, however, can be registered regardless of the reading test if he was entitled to vote on the 1st of January, 1869, or if he is descended from any such voter. This, obviously, is meant to shut out negroes, who were not entitled to vote in the beginning of 1869, and also strikes at men of foreign birth or descent, whose rights are imperiled. It will be remembered that Governor Warfield objected strongly to this amendment, but the Democrats in both houses of the Legislature, by a three-fifths majority, voted in favor of its submission to the people. The governor is still opposed to it, and is leading a considerable element of intelligent Democrats in fighting it on the stump. The conspicuous leader of the campaign for the amendment is Senator Gorman. The accepted leader of the Republican opposition is the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte, now Secretary of the Navy. The Hebrew voters and most of those who are naturalized or of foreign-born parentage are against the amendment, either for personal reasons or on general principles. As the campaign has advanced, it has seemed probable that the amendment will be defeated, in which case Senator Gorman's authority would have suffered much, while Secretary Bonaparte would have come out with a greatly enhanced political prestige and with the likelihood of being sent to the United States Senate to succeed Mr. Gorman.

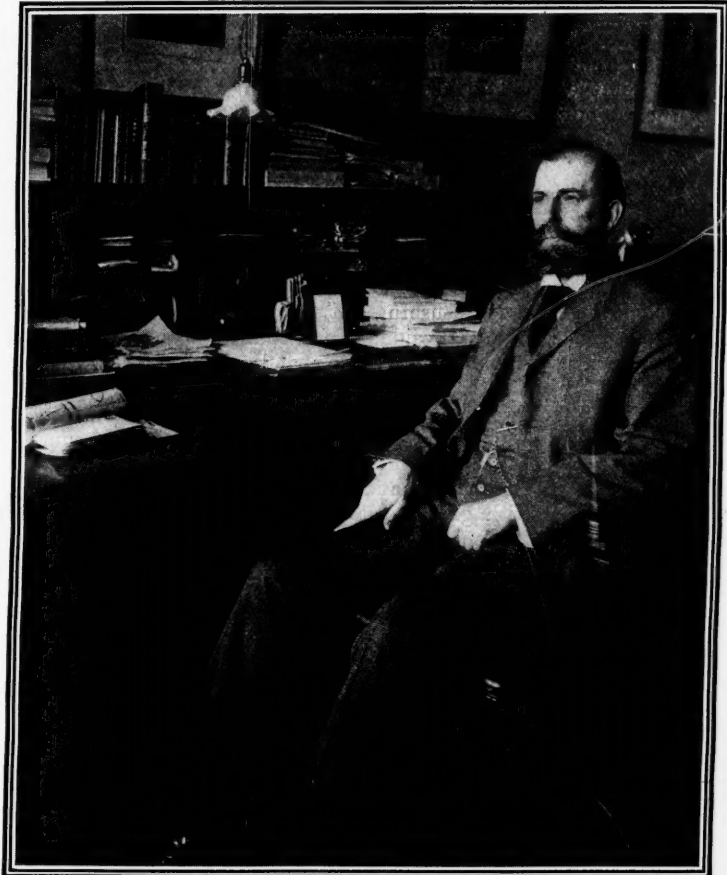
The Insurance Discussion.

We publish elsewhere a contribution to the pending insurance discussion, written frankly from the standpoint of the great companies. The discussion which began last winter with the Equitable revelations and has continued with unabated interest through the summer and fall has been of great profit to the American people. Never before were the principles of life insurance so thoroughly examined and analyzed from every point of view. The first phase of the discussion, as it was developed in the newspapers and in many of the magazines, was aptly characterized in the *Atlantic Monthly* as "the literature of exposure." But after certain abuses of management had been revealed there arose a persistent demand for the "inside" facts of the insurance business. The

public wanted to know all there was to be known about the management of the big companies, but it also began to take a keen interest in the principles on which the life-insurance system is based and the economic justification of the system. The busy American public had never before paused to inquire into these things. During the past six months an immense mass of material relating to these subjects has been issued from the press in one form or another. Much of it, doubtless, has been crude and ill-digested, some of it perhaps misleading, but, take it all in all, we cannot doubt that the general output has been useful. Quotations from some of the more important of the current magazine articles will be found in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Several of the more valuable papers have appeared in the special journals devoted to political science and economics. Such topics as deferred dividends and the cost of insurance have been scientifically treated in these journals. The September issue of the *Annals*, published by the American Academy of Political and Social Science at Philadelphia, was wholly given up to insurance topics, several experienced actuaries contributing able expositions of modern company methods. The newspaper press is constantly reprinting and recirculating much of this material, so that the great mass of Americans are benefiting from this insurance agitation in ways that nobody anticipated.

One result of the insurance exposures of the year is an educational campaign such as all the insurance companies together could not have organized. It is creditable to the national sanity and poise of judgment that in all this flurry we have not lost our heads or given up our faith in the essential soundness of conservative insurance methods

Good
Results
to Be Gained.



Stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

MR. CHARLES E. HUGHES.

(As chief counsel for the Armstrong legislative committee, Mr. Hughes is carrying on the investigation of life insurance companies in New York. He was nominated for mayor by the Republicans last month, but declined on account of the great work yet before him in the insurance inquiry. He has gained the admiration and unbounded confidence of the whole community.)

and practice. Thus, in the end, more people will be taking out policies, agency "missionary" endeavor will be less needed, and almost everybody will be benefited. The insurance laws of the States will be improved, public inspection will be more thorough, and the national government will undertake some sort of oversight. The companies will observe the spirit of trusteeship more carefully, and they will cease to maintain scandalous and corrupt lobbies at the seats of State government. Mr. Hughes and the New York investigating committee are rendering a great national service. Life insurance will not be discredited, and the great companies will not be brought to grief. But the business will be improved in its methods.

The President in the South.

If this were not decidedly an "off" year as respects national politics, a Republican President would hardly have chosen the last two weeks of October for a visit to a number of the solid Democratic States of the South, where he was everywhere to receive official courtesies and enthusiastic welcome. Next year, with the Congressional elections on hand, it would not be so feasible for President Roosevelt to make a Southern tour in October; but as matters stood the President's trip last month was entered upon with every promise of its being successful and useful. It was well known in advance that the President could count upon good-will wherever he was going, and it was also quite certain that the conditions were favorable for the expression by the President to Southern audiences of his well-known views upon desired legislation. He left Washington on the morning of October 18, and on the same day was received with great acclaim at Richmond, where he made an address of fine temper, from the standpoint of broad American nationality.

Telling Speeches and Warm Welcome.

On the following day, he was welcomed at Raleigh and other towns in North Carolina, and spoke impressively upon the economic conditions of the country and the necessity for the regulation of the highways of commerce in the interest of a fair and equal treatment of all citizens. On the 20th, he was in Georgia, and was received at Atlanta with popular enthusiasm and every mark of respect and honor. In that city he spoke upon industry, corporate activity and business honesty, and found opportunity to discuss the cotton crop, cotton exports, and our Oriental trade. And so he proceeded, day after day, addressing great audiences and winning favor which will count for practical purposes when his more urgent measures of policy are brought before Congress in the approaching session. It was his expectation, after visiting several points in Alabama, Little Rock in Arkansas, and Memphis in Tennessee, to proceed to New Orleans to spend Thursday, October 26. From that port he was to return North by water, sailing on the *West Virginia*, and arriving in Washington on the morning of the last day of October.

Panama Affairs.

The board of consulting engineers returned from their trip to Panama last month, but are not expected to make a report until after further study and consultation. There were afloat rumors to the effect that the State Department would take over the direction of Panama affairs, and that thus

Secretary Root instead of Secretary Taft would become the cabinet officer more especially charged with the canal. It has been decided, however, to leave the business where it has been, and the canal commission will be kept in association with the War Department. It is expected that canal matters will be much discussed at Washington this winter. All the opponents of the Panama project are preparing to enter upon a formidable campaign of obstruction. There will probably be some kind of a Congressional investigation. It is suggested, by the way, that the whole cost of the canal should be defrayed by the sale of bonds, and that the payments thus far made—chiefly to the French company and to the republic of Panama—should be included in a bond issue, thus allowing the sum of \$60,000,000, in round figures, to be returned to the Treasury.

Measures for Congress.

It is plain from the President's speeches that he has not given up the intention of presenting his railroad-rate measure as the foremost subject for legislation during the coming session of Congress. The railroad men are admitting the evils of rebates, private-car lines, and various other devices by which the holders of railway shares, on the one hand, and the general public, on the other, are, to a greater or less degree, defrauded



SO THOUGHTFUL OF EACH OTHER.

SECRETARY ROOT: "No, you keep it, William; you need the exercise to reduce your weight."

SECRETARY TAFT: "You take it, Elihu! It's just the job to make you strong with the people."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

RICHMOND, VA., ON THE OCCASION OF THE VISIT OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

of their just dues. But, as a rule, the railroads are strongly opposing the idea of granting any extension of the general rate-making power to the Interstate Commerce Commission, or to any other public body. On that point there is likely to be a great contest at Washington. One of the subjects certain to be brought forward in a prominent way is that of the control by the federal government of insurance business in its larger aspects. Congress will also have its attention brought to the evil of political contributions by corporations.

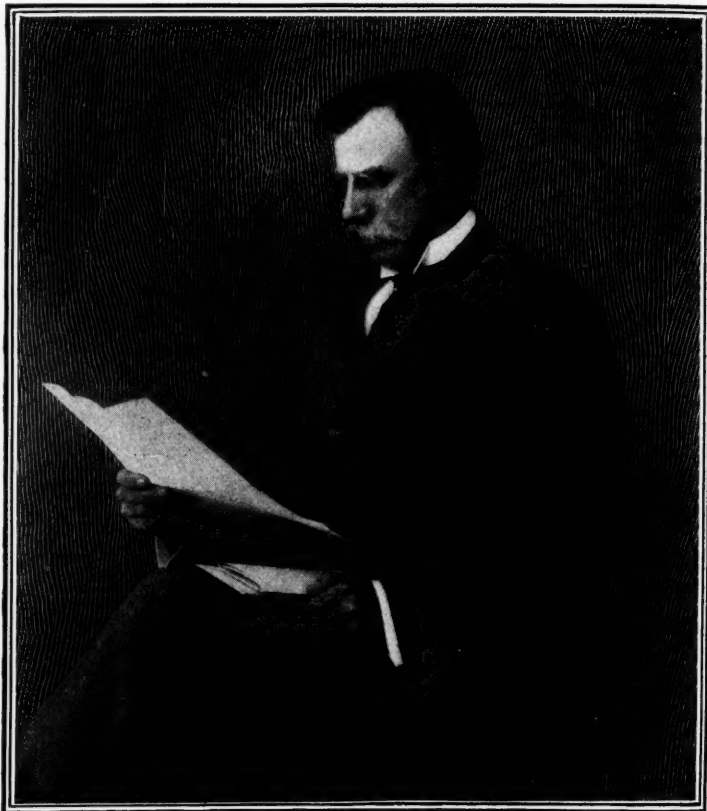
Some Foreign Questions. As respects foreign affairs, the Venezuelan question will also probably in some form claim the attention of Congress. The same thing may be said of Santo Domingo, where the President has entered upon a policy that, in our opinion, should have the full support of the Senate. Arbitration treaties will be urged upon the Senate, and to some extent the question of tariff-revision and reciprocity must be brought under discussion. Our Oriental trade, our relations with China, phases

of the immigration problem, and many other matters of great importance will be pressed upon the attention of the law-making body.

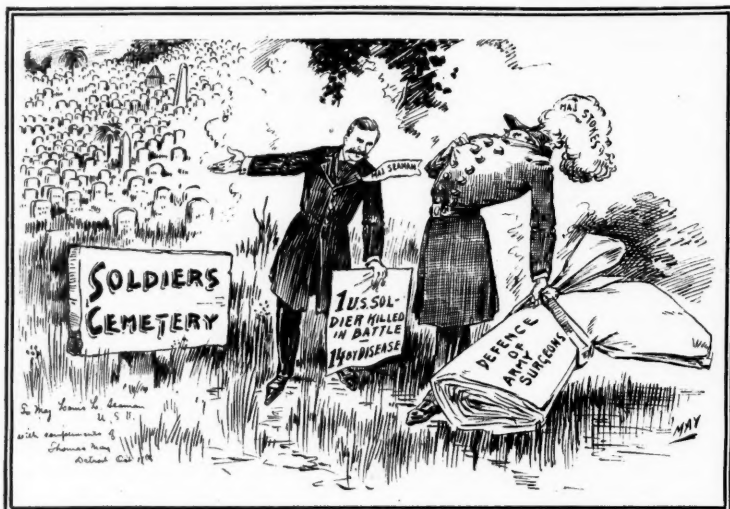
Again the Statehood Controversy

It is with regret that it becomes necessary to call attention again to the desperate effort that will be made to force Arizona and New Mexico into the Union as separate States. At this moment, when the political activities of the corporations are arousing so much indignant criticism, it would be well if certain railway and other corporate interests should confine themselves to their proper functions and cease their endeavor to determine results in a constitutional matter of such profound importance as the admission of new States to the Union. Arizona and New Mexico ought under no circumstances to be admitted separately. As one State, they should now be brought into the Union at the earliest possible date, in order to end the agitation, and in order to enable them to adjust themselves to the new situation. The same thing is true of Oklahoma and the Indian Territory.

Remembering the yellow-fever experience of New Orleans, and the delay of the work at Panama because of unfavorable sanitary conditions on the Isthmus, our readers, we believe, will find particularly timely the two articles which we present this month on the sanitary methods by which Japan has preserved the health of her fighting men. Dr. S. Suzuki, who is one of the surgeon-generals in the imperial Japanese navy, addressing the American Military Surgeons' Association at Detroit, on September 26, ascribed Japan's military success more to her skill in preventing disease than to the fighting qualities of her men. Dr. Suzuki tells us in detail the methods of sanitation employed in the Japanese navy. Dr. Louis L. Seaman, in his address at Detroit, made a plea for better-equipped and more thorough medical service. The accompanying cartoon, which was printed at the



DR. LOUIS L. SEAMAN.



MAJOR SEAMAN (replying to the "Defense of American Army Surgeons"):
"There's the proof."—From the *Journal* (Detroit).

time, refers to his indictment of Occidental medical army service. Dr. Seaman, in his tribute to the health equipment of the Japanese army, found on another page this month, makes a few comparisons which are not to the credit of conditions in our own military forces. Dr. Seaman maintains that red tape has tied the hands of Colonel Gorgas, the able sanitary expert at Panama, and so far rendered almost futile his best efforts. It is gratifying to note here that President Roosevelt is quite aware of the state of affairs at Panama, and that in the reorganization of the commission the importance of

Colonel Gorgas' work has been recognized. The announcement at the recent Paris Tuberculosis Congress of a new actual cure for tuberculosis, the discovery of Dr. Behring, a German professor, while not yet definitely described, promises much for mankind. An important meeting in Washington, early in October, was the International Sanitary Congress, at which were represented twelve American republics, and at which the subject of uniform quarantine regulations was discussed. This congress is treated further on another page this month.

Zionism and American Judaism. When the recent Zionist congress at Basel accepted the report of its special committee declining Great Britain's Uganda colony offer (the report was outlined in this department for July) and voted that the proposed autonomous Jewish state must be in Palestine, that eminent Jewish writer, Israel Zangwill, and a number of his friends announced their secession and declared that a new organization would be formed. They have now formed, in London, the Jewish Territorial Organization, which will have branches throughout the world, and which has for its object, not an attempt to reoccupy Palestine, but the creation of an autonomous Jewish colony (preferably under the British flag) where it will have some chance of success,—if not in Uganda, then elsewhere. While this project is interesting Hebrews all over the world, but British Hebrews in particular, American Judaism is preparing to celebrate the two-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the settlement of Jews in the United States. Noteworthy as has been the success of the American Hebrew in commerce and finance, his contributions to the more ideal phases of American citizenship have been no less remarkable, and there is very interesting reading in the survey of the achievements of the American Jew for two centuries and a half, by Mr. Max J. Kohler, honorary secretary of the working committee on the celebration and a prominent Hebrew lawyer of New York, which forms one of our features this month (page 556). In addition to the special services of a secular nature in connection with this celebration, appropriate religious exercises are to be held throughout the United States, in every Jewish Sabbath school, on the Jewish Sabbath immediately preceding Thanksgiving Day.

Cuba's Political Quarrels. Intervention by the United States Government in the domestic politics of Cuba, to restore order and tranquillity in the presidential election campaign, was a possibility discussed by both Cubans and

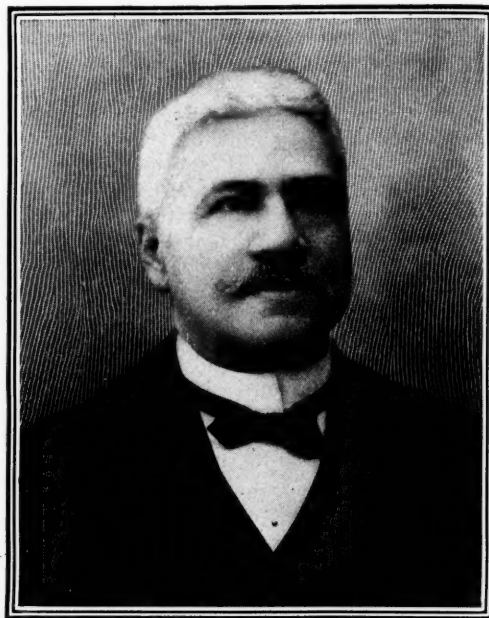
Americans last month, but particularly by the former. The arrival in New York of José Miguel Gomez, governor of Santa Clara province and candidate of the so-called Liberal party for the presidency, in flight from what he terms the assassination policy of the government, has called attention anew to the unsettled political conditions in the island republic. Mr. Gomez subsequently withdrew his name from the Liberal ticket, because, as he asserts, it is useless to oppose the methods of the government, which are "those of South America, in opposing to peaceful citizens the rifles of the public forces." The local elections which recently took place in Cuba, preliminary to the presidential election of December, indicate that President Palma will be rechosen by a substantial majority. Mr. Gomez, however, charges President Palma and the government party in general with intimidation and assassination. The Palma government, he continues, has brought the island to the verge of financial ruin, and since there is no hope for fair play at the election in December, the United States, empowered by the Platt amendment, should intervene in the interest of civilization and the Cubans themselves. Americans who have followed the acts of President Palma, however, and know his character will be slow to believe that he has any designs to put down by force of arms any legitimate opposition to himself. Riots and improper agitation methods there undoubtedly have been on both sides, but there will have to be more serious proof of the existence of anarchy or tyranny before the United States Government can be brought to even consider interference in Cuban politics. A matter of real interest to Americans, as has already been set forth in these pages, is Cuba's pending trade treaty with Great Britain and the agitation on the part of powerful commercial interests in the island for the establishment of closer trade relations with the United States.

South American Affairs. It would appear as if the Venezuelan tangle were about to receive another twist. President Castro is at last in serious difficulties with France, and it was announced in the middle of October that a flying squadron, consisting of several cruisers from France's Caribbean fleet, under the command of Admiral Bevoe de Lapeyriere, would make a demonstration against La Guayra. France has real interests in Venezuela, which have been jeopardized by President Castro's recent actions, and it is understood that our own government is in complete accord with France's purpose in this matter. From the rest of the continent of South America come reports of

peace and prosperity, with the exception (only a temporary one) of the city of Buenos Ayres, which has been for weeks the center of a serious strike of street-railway employees. Chile and Bolivia have come to a complete agreement with regard to the province of Antofagasta, taken from the latter country in the Chilean-Peruvian-Bolivian war ending in 1883. The Peruvians still smart under the loss of their two provinces of Tacna and Arica, but are beginning to recognize that these are finally lost to them, and are coming into more friendly relations with their former enemies, the Chileños. Ecuador has a new president, who took office in September. He is Señor Don Lizardo García, who some years ago attained international fame by his dexterity, while in London, in converting the external national debt of his country. We print his portrait herewith, as that of a representative, progressive South American statesman. We ought to know more about Ecuador, and, indeed, about the whole Pacific coast of South America. This republic, which is about the size of the State of New Mexico, furnishes the greater part of the world's supply of cocoa. It also makes the well-known Panama hat, which takes its name from the fact that it passes through the Isthmus to the markets of the world.

*Affairs in
the United
Kingdom.*

In British politics, the burning question is still the approaching dissolution of Parliament and the advent of the new ministry. One of the most significant indications that the Unionist government is fearful of its fate is the announcement recently made by the British treasury officials that the government would provide, before the end of the current year, an additional \$10,000,000, and would issue land stock during 1906 in amounts to produce \$50,000,000 in cash, in order to facilitate the operation of the Wyndham Land Purchase Act in Ireland. This is probably with a view to conciliating the landlords, who are mostly moderate Unionists. The act of 1903, fathered and carried through by Mr. Wyndham, who preceded Mr. Walter Hume Long as secretary for Ireland, aimed to bring about the restoration to the Irish peasantry of the land now held almost exclusively by absentee landlords. This project has not been a success, chiefly for reasons which are set forth by Mr. Thomas W. Russell, M.P., on page 572 of this issue of the REVIEW. A graphic description of the deplorable condition of rural Ireland to-day is set forth by Mr. Plummer F. Jones in this number of the REVIEW, to which we refer our readers for a full statement of the Irish problem.



SEÑOR DON LIZARDO GARCÍA, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF ECUADOR.

An interesting campaign for the institution of a universal penny postage has been launched in England by Mr. J. Henniker Heaton, M.P., and supported by a number of the most influential British public men. Mr. Heaton, in his plea (appearing in the *London Times*) for the reduction of what he calls "a tax on commerce," hopes that President Roosevelt will take the initiative in the matter. The death roll of the month in England contains the names of three men whose title to greatness will not be disputed. Dr. Thomas John Barnardo, "the father of nobody's children," was one of the most ideal of humanitarians. The veteran novelist, George MacDonald, was a writer of dramatic strength, and his sincere spiritual nature was devoted to the cause of reform in society and theology. Sir Henry Irving, the first English-speaking actor to receive knighthood, was an artist of sincerity and virility. We print an excellent recent portrait of him on another page this month.

*Britain's
Larger
Politics.*

In the readjustment of international politics consequent upon the conclusion of peace in the far East, Great Britain finds herself in possession of several points of distinct advantage. The renewal of the alliance with Japan (we give the exact terms on page 600 of this issue of the REVIEW) strengthens her hands in Asia and practically

precludes any danger of a Russian attack upon India. The *rapprochement* with France, while it has been regarded with dislike and suspicion in Germany, has distinctly improved the British status on the Continent and has been largely instrumental in what is coming to be regarded as the next dramatic movement on the international chessboard,—an Anglo-Russian understanding which shall finally fix the general status of Asia and make some significant changes in the situation in the near East. There is Russian support for this. The *Novoe Vremya*, of St. Petersburg, has even suggested that Russia, France, Germany, and the United States should join with Japan and Great Britain in maintaining the *status quo* in China, and that the affairs of central Asia should become subject to a mutual guarantee between Great Britain and Russia. It is surmised that the object of the Russian Government in thus securing a permanent settlement of Asiatic questions is to give her a free hand for nearer projects.

**Australian
and Indian
Problems.**

In Asia and the Pacific, there are several thorny points awaiting settlement by King Edward's government, prominent among which are the so-called Japanese "peril" to Australia and the intense feeling in India over the division of the Bengal presidency into two provinces. It is believed that the Japanese Government has presented to Foreign Secretary Lansdowne a protest against the Australian immigration restrictions, which close to the teeming population of the island empire the fertile, sparsely populated island continent of Australia. The British Government, however, can do nothing further than refer the

matter to the Australian federal ministers, for it was the Australian Parliament that passed the law. Unfortunately, Great Britain cannot satisfy Japan, because she cannot coerce Australia. There is, however, an increasing number of Australians who believe that, in view of her need for plentiful and cheap labor, Japanese and Chinese should be admitted without restriction to the Commonwealth. The Bengal question is a racial one. The Bengalese resent the British Government's intention to cut the presidency in two, since it would divide their race politically. The Indian Office, however, claims that, as now constituted, the province is too large (its present population is over 40,000,000). The proclamation of partition was issued on September 1. Since then, indignation has grown, and last month it culminated in a serious trade boycott of British goods.

**An
Agreement on
Morocco.**

After three months' negotiations, France and Germany, it was announced from Berlin and Paris on September 26, have come into complete agreement on the Moroccan question. The Kaiser's objects in these negotiations are officially declared to have been: (1) In general European councils to assert German influence; (2) in general African interests to establish a precedent that nothing could be disposed of without first consulting Germany; and (3) as to Morocco in particular, to impress the Sultan of that country with Germany's power to challenge anything done by other nations. Somewhat over a year ago, it will be remembered, France, England, and Spain agreed that French influence should be predominant in Morocco. Germany, how-

ever, although informed of this agreement, waited a year before protesting. Then the Kaiser went to Tangier and informed the Moroccan Sultan that as one of the signatories of the Madrid treaty he would defend the rights of Morocco. During the negotiations, the relations between France and Germany, and the general peace of Europe, were threatened with rupture. Indeed, according to some sensational revelations in several Paris newspapers during the past month, the French ex-premier, Delcassé, had sought and obtained formal assurances of British coöperation with France against Germany if



AN ITALIAN VIEW OF HOW RUSSIA WILL BE AFFECTED BY THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.—From Fischietto (Turin).

the question involved open rupture. By the agreement just reached, Germany wins certain points. In general, however, the victory rests with France, since—(1) the Franco-Anglo-Spanish agreement is untouched; (2) at the forthcoming international conference Germany agrees not to oppose legitimate French interests; (3) Germany recognizes the special rights of France to police the Moroccan-Algerian frontier; and (4) Morocco gives France the preference in financial operations. The conference, it is announced, will be held some time late in November, at Algeciras, in Spain.

Sweden
and Norway
Separate.

Following closely upon the conclusion of the treaty of Portsmouth came another historic event, the treaty of Karlstad, by which Norway and Sweden agree to dissolve the union which has bound them for over ninety years and settle all their differences. On September 23, the Norwegian and Swedish commissioners, in session at the little town of Karlstad, about midway between Christiania and Stockholm, after many mutual concessions,



GEN. O. HANSEN.
(Commander-in-chief of the
Norwegian army.)

signed a treaty which was afterward approved by both the Norwegian Storthing (October 9) and the Swedish Riksdag (October 16). The document contains five articles, under the following heads: First.—Arbitration. For ten years all differences arising between the two countries which they are unable to settle by direct diplomatic negotiation shall be referred to the Hague court of arbitration, provided such differences do not concern the independence, integrity, or vital interests of either country. The Hague court, moreover, is itself to be judge of its own competency in this matter. Second.—A neutral zone. This to be established on either side of the frontier, subject to perpetual neutrality, except when the two countries are engaged in warfare against a common foe. The existing Norwegian forts within this zone are to be destroyed or rendered useless. Third.—Grazing rights. For humane reasons, Swedish Laplanders are to be allowed to retain their ancient right to graze



PRINCE CHARLES OF DENMARK.

(Who has decided to accept the crown of Norway.)

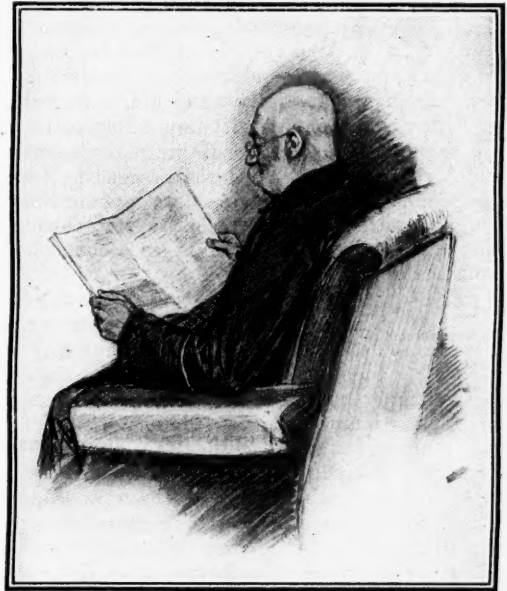
their reindeer alternately in each country. Fourth.—Transit traffic. For thirty years there is to be no obstruction to import or export traffic from one country to the other, contraband of war alone excepted. Fifth.—Waterways. The laws of each country shall be applicable to these highways within their respective territories, but vested rights are to be respected in both.

As to
Possible
Russian
Aggression.

The treaty of Karlstad further binds the rulers not to cede any Swedish Norwegian territory to Russia, or to grant Russia any coast privileges. Sweden dreads possible foreign alliances of Norway, particularly a future understanding with Russia, which would place the Swedes between two fires. For a long time the great question confronting Norway was that as to the form of her future government. There were many advocates of a republic. After much discussion, however, and without waiting to submit the question to a plebiscite, late in October the Storthing passed a bill actually offering the crown to Prince Charles of Denmark. This prince, who is the second son of the Danish heir-apparent, is thirty-three years of age, and his wife is the youngest daughter of King Edward of England. His election will have to be confirmed by popular vote.

What is
Austria-
Hungary?

It was Lord Palmerston, if we remember correctly, who once declared that the Schleswig-Holstein question had been mastered by only one person,—an erudite German professor, who died shortly afterward in a lunatic asylum. The Austro-Hungarian question is even worse than this. No one has ever yet been known to master it. To establish a union and political harmony out of a mixture of some fifteen different races, all cordially hating one another, by means of an alliance between two ostensibly liberal constitutions (one of which is really an absolutism), on the basis of keeping down the majority of the population through an understanding between two mutually hostile minorities, and all under conditions which absolutely preclude any logical evolution of a national character,—such has been the Austro-Hungarian problem since the famous *Ausgleich*, or compromise, of 1867. It may be helpful at the present moment, when the long-expected rupture between Austria and Hungary seems to be nearer than ever before, to recall a few of the often forgotten facts about this dual monarchy which Americans (incorrectly) designate Austria. The Austro-Hungarian Empire is made up of two coordinate states, Austria and Hungary. Austria proper contains seventeen states, each with its own local legislature and representatives in the imperial parliament, or Reichsrath, at Vienna. Hungary is not one of these constituent states. She has her own parliament, or Diet, at Budapest, and no representatives at Vienna. Austria contains, approximately, 116,000 square miles (the State of Arizona contains 113,000), and its population is a little over 26,000,000. Hungary contains 125,000 square miles (the State of New Mexico contains 122,000), and has a population of slightly over 19,000,000. Hungary is, therefore, larger in area, Austria in population. More radically different races and religions are within the dual monarchy than in any other political division of the earth's surface. The composite character of these populations is shown in our diagram.



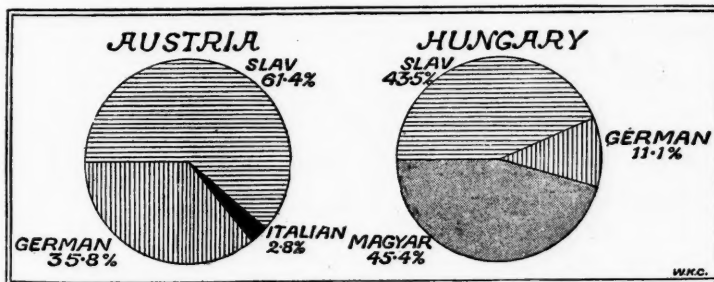
HIS MAJESTY FRANCIS JOSEPH, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA AND KING OF HUNGARY.

(He has recently celebrated his seventy-fifth birthday.)

*Constitution
of the Dual
Monarchy.*

The imperial parliament at Vienna, in which Hungary has no part, enacts laws for the rest of the empire. The Diet at Budapest enacts laws for Hungary only. The national courts are also separate. There is an Austrian legislature, system of laws, and judiciary, and there is a Hungarian legislature, system of laws, and judiciary, but there is no Austro-Hungarian legislature, system of laws, and judiciary. The matters of foreign relations and common defense are under the supervision of one department and one army. To make this effective, a committee from each parliament has been called into existence, consisting of sixty members from the Austrian and sixty members from the Hungarian parliament. These

committees, known as the Delegations, meet annually, at Vienna and Budapest alternately, always holding their sessions separately. In the event of failure to agree upon a war appropriation, they may come together to vote, but there can be no discussion in joint session. Even after the matter of war appropriation has been decided, it cannot become binding on Hun-



THE RELATIVE PROPORTION OF THE VARIOUS RACES IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

gary until ratified by the Hungarian parliament. The Emperor of Austria is King of Hungary, and it is in this,—which to Americans seems artificial,—relation that the difficulty lies. Even so experienced and able a monarch as Francis Joseph finds it impossible to be at the same time constitutional king of a country which regards all authority as proceeding from the people and virtually absolute monarch of a conglomeration of almost feudal states which look upon every popular right as a concession from the crown.

The present difficulty arises from the deadlock in the Hungarian parliament, owing principally to the refusal of the Emperor King to recognize the justice of the Hungarian demand for the use of the Magyar language in the Hungarian army. The Fejervary cabinet was forced to resign, in the middle of September, owing to the united opposition, which impeached the ministry for unconstitutional appropriation of public funds and the conclusion of commercial treaties without the approval of the Hungarian nation—only to be reappointed in October, with a new minister of agriculture. A coalition of the five opposition parties under Francis Kossuth, son of the great leader of 1848, now seems to control the situation. A proposition advanced by some of the minor nationalities under Hungarian rule, and enthusiastically supported by



A GOOD MEDICINE, THOUGH BITTER.

KING OF HUNGARY (Francis Joseph): "And must I come to this?"

PREMIER BARON FEJERVARY (offering the "Universal Suffrage" tonic): "Yes, your majesty. It is a bitter dose, but our last remedy."—From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).

the Socialists, to bring about universal suffrage has complicated the situation, as the idea is opposed by the Magyars, who would be outvoted if universal suffrage were enacted. The Emperor is opposed to the universal-suffrage idea, but, as the only means of defeating the Magyar opposition, he may be forced to permit its adoption. By the prorogation of the Hungarian Diet, on October 10 (to reassemble December 19), Hungary finds herself in a very unfortunate situation. Owing to the deadlock, the country has been without a budget since January. Taxes may not be collected, nor recruits for the army voted. It is evident that some way out of the present situation must be found at an early date, for the lack of funds makes very difficult the payment of railway men, public teachers, and government officials generally. All the able men of the nation are with the opposition. Besides Francis Kossuth, the best-known leaders of the national forces (now heading the parties which have united under the leadership of Kossuth) are: Count Albert Apponyi, leader of the ultra-opposition; Baron Banffy, ex-premier; Count Zichy, leader of the clerical People's Party, and Count Julius Andrassy, son of the late premier.

The second week in October saw the actual ratification of the Russo-Japanese treaty by the Emperors of both countries. This historic document, the exact terms of which we reproduce this month, is now binding, and while the phraseology is slightly different from the guesses beforehand, yet in no important particular has the newspaper forecast been proved incorrect. The peace treaty leaves two immense armies in the far East, which, however, are being slowly withdrawn from the seat of war, as the two commanders can arrange it. The closer the terms of peace and the actual situation are considered, the more evident does it become to the unprejudiced observer and well-wisher of both countries that the peace of Portsmouth was made at the opportune time, and that it is just, and destined to be lasting. All the world is certainly to be congratulated on the results. The American people should be proud of their President for the part he played, and Germans will certainly remember with much gratification the patient and persistent efforts of Kaiser Wilhelm to bring about peace. Both warring nations needed peace. The financial and economic resources of Japan, while not exhausted, were in such condition as to make peace highly desirable—even necessary. The internal unrest in Russia had rendered imperative the cessation of hostilities in

order to bring about domestic reforms. Indeed, Count Witte's next great task,—a greater one than he accomplished at Portsmouth,—would appear to be the negotiation of a real treaty of peace between the Russian Government and the Russian people.

"All the Russias" Demand Reforms. All Russia awaits with intense interest and anxiety the assembling, in January, of the Duma, or national parliament.

Meanwhile, the campaign of political education goes on, despite all that the reactionaries and bureaucrats can do to prevent it. During the last week in September, three distinct classes of Russian society put themselves on record as in favor of radical reforms,—the nobles, the zemstvoists, and the peasants. At their meeting at St. Petersburg, the nobles unanimously adopted resolutions demanding the separation of the legislative, judicial, and executive branches of the government; equal justice for all classes; coöperation in the work of state ministers, who should be held responsible for their acts; education for the masses, with absolute freedom to establish schools; and entire freedom of assembly, organization, and the press. The aristocracy of Russia and the Liberal

movement in general, however, suffered a severe loss last month in the death of Prince Sergius Trubetskoi, a reform leader of great breadth of view and ability. The Peasants' Union, an organization of only a year's growth but now numbering hundreds of thousands, in its delegate meeting at Moscow, announced that it would enter the Duma chiefly to proclaim its demands for electoral reform and to organize an agrarian movement. Most of the peasants believe that it is the duty of the Russian state to take from private owners the land and divide it among the landless peasants.

Most significant and important, however, was the All-Russian Congress of Radical Attitude of the Zemstvos. Zemstvoists, which met at Moscow, on September 26, in conjunction with representatives of municipal councils. Nearly two hundred delegates attended, and the presiding officer was Count Heyden, who had presided over the previous congresses. The first notable fact about this gathering was that the imperial government actually abolished the censorship on reports of its proceedings. While holding that the Duma will not give national representation in the true sense, the zemstvo representatives decided to enter the new assembly in the largest numbers possible, "for the purpose of forming a united group, with the object of obtaining guarantees of personal liberty and equality." Mr. W. T. Stead writes from Moscow an interesting account of the election campaign for this Duma, which we print on another page. This stand evidently indicates the election of a large faction of the Liberals,—such men as Count Heyden, Ivan Petrunkevitch, the radical leader Naboukov, and others,—in this first Russian national assembly. In the opinion of the zemstvoists, the fundamental defect of the Czar's scheme lies in the absence of personal guarantees; and, in their programme, they, in common with the nobles, make demands for such guarantees. They ask responsibility before the law for all private individuals and officials alike; immediate recognition of the inviolability of person and domicile; guarantee of the freedom of conscience, speech, assembly, and the press; abolition of the passport system; trial by jury; the separation of the department of justice from the other branches of administration; the irremovability of judges; the abolition of capital punishment; drastic land-tenure reform; thorough reorganization of popular education, and the establishment of state insurance for workingmen. There is prospect of a tactical struggle in this coming assembly such as has not been seen for a century in Europe.



LINEVITCH THE UNDEFEATED.

(In this way, the German cartoon paper, *Ull*, humorously sums up the present situation in Manchuria.)

Japan Still Dissatisfied with the Peace Terms. It is still felt by a large proportion of the Japanese people that the empire has really failed in what she set out to do when she went to war with Russia. After all the sufferings, burdens, and bereavements of two bloody and victorious campaigns, the Japanese people believed that they were entitled to dictate a peace the terms of which would be severe enough to effectually cripple Russian power in eastern Asia and to give the whole



DR. S. SUZUKI, SURGEON-GENERAL IN THE JAPANESE NAVY.

(See article on page 587.)

empire a feeling of security for the future. They contended that they do not want to have to fight Russia again, but they now fear that they may have to, although they are aware of the fact that probably never again will Japan be able to fight Russia under such favorable conditions. Many of the more progressive leaders condemn the government for its use of force in attempting to suppress the popular agitation over the unsatisfactory peace terms. In the light of editorial comment in the journals of Tokio, Yokohama, and Osaka during the past month, it is evident that the people hold the ministry responsible and will demand the downfall of the Katsura cabinet as the penalty for its ill-advised attempt to throttle public opinion by force. The government, it would seem, made a great mistake in adding to the natural dissatisfaction over the peace terms in Tokio by attempting to prevent the expression of this dis-

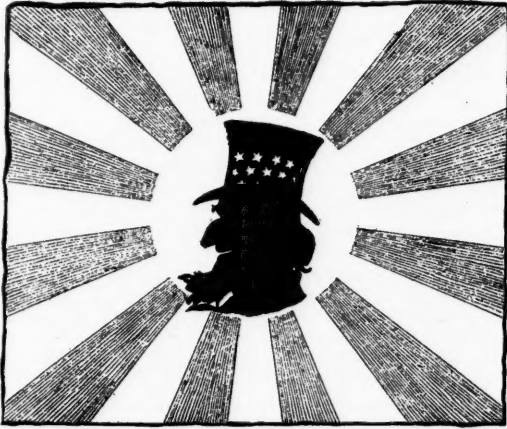
satisfaction in a legal and orderly manner. If the ministry had at once furnished the nation with a general summary of the peace terms and a statement of its reasons for acceding to them,—if it had published the provisions of the new Anglo-Japanese alliance, or had even informed the people that this alliance would insure future peace against the aggressions of Russia,—it is highly probable that serious trouble would have been averted. The Katsura cabinet, however, which has conducted a great war with such conspicuous ability and brilliant success, has not succeeded in the more difficult and more important question of satisfying the Japanese people.

—but Accepts Them Philosophically. Friends of Japan all over the world, however, are strongly of the opinion that she took the wisest, shrewdest step possible when she came to peace with Russia on the terms agreed upon at Portsmouth. The Japanese people themselves, also, have evidently accepted philosophically what is already an accomplished fact. In an imperial rescript published upon the day of the ratification of the treaty, the Japanese Emperor warns the nation against pride, and asks his people not to show vainglorious boasting. He says further:

While maintaining military efficiency in full vigor, even in time of peace, it is desirable that an earnest endeavor should be made to attain success in peaceful pursuits, so that, in equal measure with its power, the prosperity of the country may be maintained and its permanent progress assured.

Martial law has now been abrogated throughout the empire, and the capital has resumed its wonted cheerful appearance,—a result to which the friendly visit of the British fleet, under Vice-Admiral Sir Gerald Noel, has contributed in no small degree. Late in October, Admiral Togo reached Tokio, and was received with great demonstrations, and the Japanese capital is preparing a splendid naval review in his honor.

Japan After the Peace. Economic and commercial questions of vital import are now pressing for the consideration of the Mikado's government. It is now announced that, despite the claims of the Tokio government to be financially capable of a long war, the struggle has proved more costly than was calculated. Moreover, in view of the unfavorable weather during the past summer, the rice and cereal crops are expected to be smaller than the average, thus bringing real hard times to the masses of the people. According to her own official reports, also, the war cost her 72,400 dead, of which, thanks to her excellent sanitary arrangements and hospital service, only 26,400 perished of



AS ASIA NOW SEES THE RISING SUN.
From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).

disease and wounds. Dr. Suzuki, one of the Japanese naval surgeons, tells, on another page this month, how these splendid results were attained. According to a statement made by Count Okuma, leader of the Progressive party and formerly prime minister, before the Chamber of Commerce of Tokio, early in October, Japan will have a debt of \$1,250,000,000 as soon as she has withdrawn her troops from the continent. On this the interest alone will be, approximately, \$75,000,000 a year, nearly twice as much as the entire revenue of Japan a decade ago, and necessitating an additional *per capita* taxation of \$6. To lift this heavy burden from the shoulders of the people, Count Okuma and Baron Shibusawa, president of the National Bank and chairman of the Tokio Chamber of Commerce, have recommended to the government a number of measures for the advancement of international trade, industry, and finance, including the appointment of government commercial agents, the establishment of floating exhibitions of samples and museums in foreign ports, retrenchment of government expenses, and the establishment of a Chino-Japanese bank. A number of the Mikado's statesmen are known to favor a diversion of Japanese immigration from this country to Korea and Manchuria. The former country is now swarming with Japanese commercial agents, and it is generally believed that a real, exclusive Japanese protectorate will soon be established over the Hermit Kingdom.

Nothing more significant or impressive has happened as the result of the war between Russia and Japan than the slow but unmistakable awakening of China

to a national consciousness. As has been stated several times before in these pages, a widespread and well-organized propaganda of Western education under Japanese influence is being conducted in China, and the empire is filled with Japanese who are educating the nation. The national progressive movement is spreading rapidly, and is generally of an anti-foreign character, this being evidenced by the recent boycott against American goods. The boycott was directed against the United States ostensibly because of immigration restrictions, but, to those who know China and the Chinese, its deeper significance is that of the awakening of the vast empire to a national idea and to a conception, not merely of China for the yellow race, but of China for the Chinese. The imperial edict of July last authorized four missions to visit the principal countries of Europe and America to study their government, educational methods, and industries. These missions are now on their way through Japan. They had intended to study American conditions most thoroughly, but whether or not they will visit this country will be determined by the possibility of a relaxation in the strict exclusion laws of the United States.

*A Modern
Chinese
Army.*

Of great interest and moment to the Western world is the plan recently adopted for the complete reorganization of the Chinese army. This plan contemplates the division of the empire into military districts, and a service of nine years for all able-bodied males, who will be thoroughly drilled and equipped by modern methods. Within five years, this plan is expected to give China a modern army of half a million men. During the last week in October a review of 40,000 well-drilled, well-equipped Chinese troops was held not far from Peking, at which many foreign *attachés* and newspaper correspondents were present. With this in view, it is significant to note the formal protest made to the Russian and Japanese governments by the Chinese foreign office against those provisions of the Portsmouth treaty which provide for the evacuation of Manchuria in eighteen months and the right of both Japan and Russia to protect their respective holdings of the Chinese Eastern Railway by a guard of fifteen soldiers per kilometer. China regards eighteen months as entirely too long a period for the evacuation, and, moreover, considers herself quite competent to maintain order in Manchuria. She therefore objects to the permanent maintenance of such a number of foreign soldiers as this provision would permit.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From September 21 to October 20, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

September 21.—In the government prosecutions of the packers at Chicago, four officials of the Schwartzschild & Sulzberger Company plead guilty to the charge of conspiring to accept railroad rebates.

September 22.—United States District Attorney Morrison, at Chicago, announces that the Government will prosecute the railroads for giving rebates to shippers.

September 23.—Vice-President Fairbanks, Senator Foraker, and Governor Herrick open the Ohio Republican campaign with speeches.

September 25.—The health authorities of Mississippi and Tennessee agree to waive quarantine regulations to permit President Roosevelt to visit New Orleans.

September 28.—Representative John M. Williamson, of Oregon, is found guilty of conspiracy to defraud the Government in land deals....In an address before the Ohio Bankers' Association, Secretary Shaw urges a more elastic currency system.

September 30.—President Roosevelt returns to Washington after a summer vacation.

October 2.—Secretary Root assumes charge of the State Department and Secretary Taft returns to the War Department.

October 3.—The first cabinet meeting held at the White House since the summer vacation discusses the Chinese exclusion law.

October 4.—President John A. McCall, of the New York Life Insurance Company, testifies before the legislative investigating committee that his company has paid \$885,000 in five years to influence State legislatures.

October 5.—New York City Democrats (Tammany) renominate Mayor George B. McClellan.

October 6.—Massachusetts Republicans nominate Curtis Guild, Jr., for governor.

October 7.—Massachusetts Democrats nominate Charles W. Bartlett for governor.

October 9.—Charles E. Hughes, chief counsel in the legislative insurance investigation, declines the Republican nomination for mayor of New York.

October 12.—Rhode Island Democrats nominate ex-Governor Garvin for governor....William M. Ivins accepts the Republican nomination for mayor of New York City....William Randolph Hearst is nominated for mayor of New York City on a municipal ownership platform; John Ford receives the nomination for comptroller, and J. G. Phelps Stokes for president of the Board of Aldermen.

October 14.—President Roosevelt accepts the resignation of William F. Powell, United States minister to Haiti....Congressman Williams, of Oregon, is found guilty of subornation of perjury in connection with land frauds and sentenced to serve ten months in prison and to pay a fine of \$500.

October 16.—Arguments are heard by the United States Supreme Court in the appeal of ex-Senator Greene, of Binghamton, charged with conspiracy to defraud the Government in the postal cases.

October 17.—President Roosevelt issues an order which enables heads of government departments to discharge civil-service employees without filing charges and giving hearings.

October 18.—President Roosevelt leaves Washington on his Southern trip; he meets with an enthusiastic reception at Richmond, Va....United States Senator Penrose, of Pennsylvania, makes a bitter attack on John Wanamaker and ex-Judge Gordon at a political meeting in Philadelphia....District Attorney Jerome opens his campaign for reelection in New York City....Rhode Island Republicans renominate Governor Utter.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

September 21.—It is announced that public meetings will be authorized in Russia, in view of the elections to the Duma; Mr. W. T. Stead obtains permission from the Czar to assist in organizing the meeting....Additional Russian troops are ordered to the Baku district.

September 22.—Repressive measures against Finland are being carried out by the Russian Government....The budget for Holland shows a deficit of nearly \$5,000,000....In a political affray in Cienfuegos, Cuba, Colonel Dillundas, the Liberal leader, and the chief of police are killed, and several of their adherents wounded.

September 23.—In the Hungarian crisis, the Emperor's ultimatum to the coalition leaders is rejected by them....The Cuban elections result in a sweeping victory for President Palma and the Moderate party.

September 25.—A political congress, consisting of three hundred delegates representing all parts of the Russian Empire, assembles in a private house at Moscow, with the consent of the authorities....The Spanish senatorial elections take place....The zemstvo congress at Moscow votes to aid the plan for the national assembly to force the government to grant real liberty....The executive committee of the Hungarian opposition decides to summon a general conference to frame a reply to the Emperor.

September 26.—The Austrian Reichsrath reassembles....The zemstvo congress at Moscow discusses the electoral organization and programme.

September 27.—In Hungary, the leaders of the coalition declare that some points of the programme laid before them by the Emperor are not in conformity with the constitution....The zemstvo congress at Moscow demands sweeping reforms in the department of justice, and discusses the proposal for economy among all the nationalities in the empire.

September 29.—Alderman Vaughan Morgan is elected Lord Mayor of London.

October 2.—Hungarians demand of the Austrian premier an unequivocal explanation of his interference in electoral reforms.

October 3.—The Hungarian ministers discuss universal suffrage with the Emperor at Vienna.

October 5.—The total present debt of Japan is stated at \$1,250,000,000; annual interest, \$75,000,000.

October 8.—Rioting is renewed in Moscow....The Workmen's Federation having declared a general strike

in Argentina, the national congress resolves to declare martial law throughout the country for ninety days.

October 10.—Emperor Francis Joseph again pro-rogues the Hungarian parliament; the coalition party presents its protests.

October 16.—Leaders of the Liberal party in Cuba urge their adherents not to vote at the coming election.

October 17.—Strike disorders are reported from many points in Russia....Baron Fejervary is reappointed Hungarian premier.

October 18.—Cossacks are employed to clear the streets of St. Petersburg.

October 19.—The new Hungarian cabinet is named.

October 20.—Troops are called on to disperse crowds at Moscow, where the railway employees are on strike.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

September 21.—The Cuban Government apologizes to the United States for the defilement of an American escutcheon on December 19....Norwegian and Swedish commissioners resume their conference....French and German authorities resume the Moroccan negotiations.

September 22.—More than forty memorials against the ratification of the peace treaty with Russia are laid before the Emperor of Japan....The Venezuelan Government refuses to hold further intercourse with the present French minister, on account of his protest in the cable case.

September 23.—A complete agreement is reached between the Swedish and Norwegian delegates at Karlstad.

September 24.—The Armenians and the Tatars sign a preliminary treaty of peace at Baku under the presidency of Prince Louis Napoleon, governor-general of the Caucasus.

September 25.—The draft agreement between Sweden and Norway is published in both capitals; Norway practically concedes the demand for the abandonment of the fortifications.

September 26.—The text of the new Anglo-Japanese alliance is made public....The Franco-German negotiations over Morocco are concluded and an agreement is signed....The six great powers notify Turkey that their decision to assume financial control of Macedonia is unalterable....Great Britain and China agree to a conference to conclude a new Tibetan treaty.

September 29.—Turkey expresses regret to Serbia for the arrest of Serbian subjects, but takes no notice of the demand for indemnity....St. Petersburg reports the signing of a new Franco-Russian commercial convention, becoming effective on March 1, 1906.

September 30.—Turkey seeks permission of Great Britain to expel from Macedonia Mr. James Bryce, who is journeying there.

October 2.—Turkey formally opposes the scheme of the six powers for the financial control of Macedonia....The Canadian authorities finally sign a warrant for extradition to the United States of Messrs. Gaynor and Greene.

October 4.—The Japanese proposal for the exchange of prisoners of war is accepted by Russia.

October 5.—A British cruiser forces the settlement of claims against Turkey for the piratical attacks of Arabs.



Stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPEAKING AT RICHMOND, VA.,
OCTOBER 18.

October 6.—The Japanese and Russian commanders in northern Korea are reported as unable to agree on terms of armistice.

October 8.—It is announced that the United States Government will oppose the ratification by Cuba of the new commercial treaty with Great Britain, as detrimental to American interests.

October 9.—The Norwegian Storthing, by a vote of 101 to 16, accepts the agreement for the dissolution of the union with Sweden....Germany and Great Britain agree to accept conditionally the invitation to a second peace conference....Chinese merchants agree to suspend the boycott on American goods, pending Congressional legislation on the exclusion laws.

October 12.—Fishermen from Gloucester complain that Newfoundland fishermen are interfering with their treaty rights.

October 14.—The Panama Government announces that it will pay only its share of the Colombian debt in proportion to the population of the Isthmus at the time when independence was declared and conditionally on Colombia's agreement to repay sums borrowed from Panama....Final ratifications of the Russo-Japanese peace treaty are exchanged between the Czar and the Mikado.

October 16.—The full text of the Russo-Japanese peace treaty is published at Tokio (see page 596).

October 17.—Business men of Cuba urge a commercial treaty with the United States.

October 19.—The Czar of Russia issues a manifesto on the ratification of peace with Japan.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

September 21.—Mount San Paolino, in Sicily, collapses owing to sulphur-mining operations; the town of Sutena is buried.

September 22.—A great lockout in the works of the two principal electrical engineering firms in Berlin, Germany, affects 8,000 workmen....Twenty thousand workmen go on strike in Łódź, Poland.

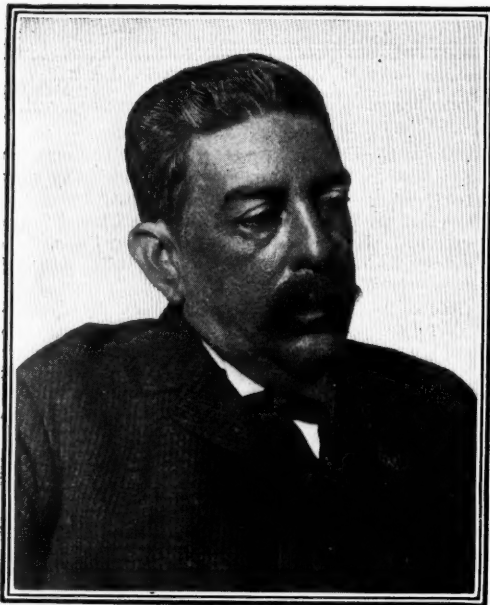
September 24.—Fire at Butte, Mont., destroys the public library and property worth \$1,250,000.

September 26.—The Corporation of the City of London votes to confer the freedom of the city on General William Booth, of the Salvation Army.

September 27.—Secretary Taft and most of his party arrive at San Francisco from their journey to the far East.

September 28.—The sunken steamship *Chatham*, which had on board ninety tons of dynamite, is successfully blown up in the Suez Canal... A reservoir with a capacity of 2,750,000,000 gallons is opened at Talla, in Peebleshire, giving Edinburgh a new supply of water....Mr. Witte arrives at St. Petersburg.

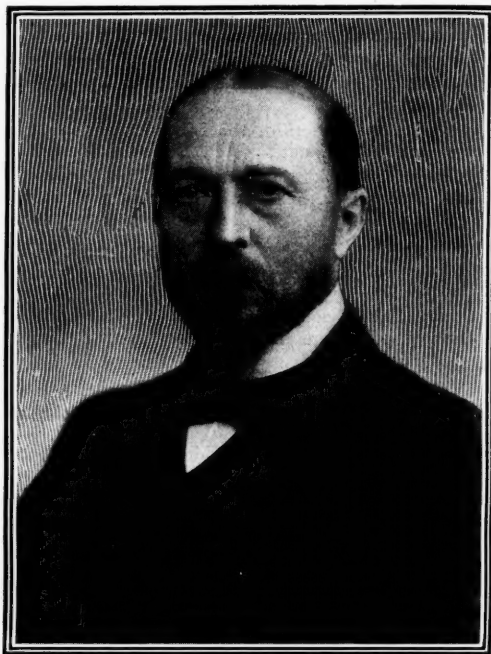
September 29.—The second of the twin tunnel tubes under the Hudson River, between New York and Jersey City, is completed....Heavy losses in life and property result from a typhoon in the Philippines.



Copyright, 1905, by Brown Bros., New York.

JOSÉ MIGUEL GÓMEZ.

(The Cuban Liberal leader, now in the United States.)



DR. EMIL BEHRING.

(The German bacteriologist, whose discovery of a cure for tuberculosis has caused a sensation in Europe.)

September 30.—The United States battleship *Mississippi* is launched at Philadelphia....The number of men out of employment because of the electrical lockout in Berlin, Germany, is estimated at 33,000.

October 3.—The International Tuberculosis Congress meets in Paris.

October 8.—Yellow fever breaks out in Pensacola, Fla.

October 9.—President Roosevelt confers with leaders in college athletics with a view to improving standards....The committee on the selection of names for the Hall of Fame in New York elect James Russell Lowell, John Greenleaf Whittier, and Gen. William T. Sherman....A sanitary conference of American republics opens in Washington (see page 549).

October 11.—The American Bankers' Association meets in Washington.

October 14.—Hemery, of the French team, wins the second automobile race for the Vanderbilt Cup, over the Mineola, Long Island, course, covering the 283 miles in 4 hours, 36 minutes, and 8 seconds.

October 17.—Andrew Carnegie is installed as Lord Rector of St. Andrews....The Cotton Manufacturers' Association of Fall River, Mass., announces an advance in wages.

October 18.—After the death by suicide of its cashier, the Enterprise National Bank of Allegheny, Pa., is closed by order of the Comptroller of the Currency; prominent Republican politicians of Pennsylvania are implicated in the disaster to the bank.

October 20.—The ashes of Sir Henry Irving are interred in Westminster Abbey.... President Roosevelt is welcomed by 100,000 people at Atlanta, and visits the birthplace of his mother at Roswell, Ga.

OBITUARY.

September 21.—Dr. Francisco Garcia Calderon, former president of Peru, 71.... Frederick Flores Galindo, the Peruvian poet.... Col. Frank Rhodes, 54.

September 22.—Ex-Gov. Charles T. O'Ferrall, of Virginia, 65.... Col. Ivan N. Walker, formerly commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 66.... Francis H. Peabody, the Boston banker, 74.... Ex-Gov. Henry Howard, of Rhode Island, 78.... Rudolf Baumbach, the German poet, 64.

September 23.—Ex-Gov. John M. Hamilton, of Illinois.

September 24.—The Very Rev. Dr. Henderson, Dean of Carlisle, 86.... Rt. Rev. Dr. W. K. Macrori, late Bishop of Maritzburg and Canon of Ely, 74.... Dr. Hamilton, Canon of Durham, 82.

September 25.—M. Godefroy Cavaignac, former French minister of war, 52.

September 26.—Prof. Mortimer L. Earle, of Columbia University, 41.

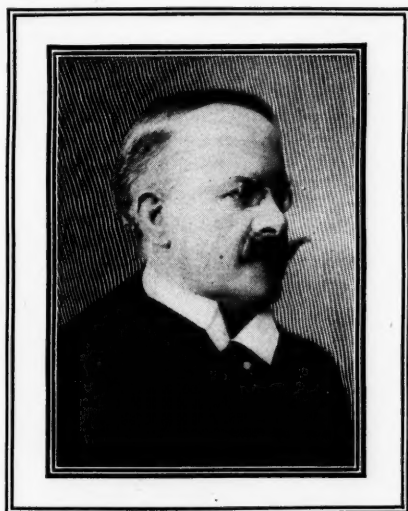
September 27.—Wheeler H. Peckham, an eminent New York lawyer and reformer, 73.... Jacob Litt, the theatrical manager, 48.

September 28.—Frank Beard, the well-known Amer-



"CURTAIN!"

(A characteristic tribute from Cartoonist Bush, of the New York World, to the late Sir Henry Irving.)



THE LATE DR. THOMAS J. BARNARDO.

(The great London philanthropist. See Mr. W. T. Stead's article on "The Father of Nobody's Children" in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for August, 1896.)

ican illustrator, 63.... T. Edgar Pemberton, the English dramatist, 56.... Miss Flora Stevenson, chairman since 1900 of the Edinburgh school board, 65.

September 29.—Dr. Theodore Woolsey Heermance, director of the American School at Athens, 30.

October 3.—Associate Justice James Madison Barker,

of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, 66.... José Maria de Heredia, poet and member of the French Academy, 63.... Dr. William P. Tonry, the well-known chemist and toxicologist of Baltimore, 65.

October 4.—Dr. Henry D. Didama, of the Syracuse University Medical College, 82.

October 5.—Senator Carlos Walker Martinez, leader of the Conservative party in Chile, 63.

October 6.—Edhem Pacha, commander-in-chief of the Turkish army in the war with Greece, 54.

October 7.—Baron Ferdinand von Richthofen, the German geographer, 72.

October 8.—Lord Inverclyde, chairman of the Cunard Steamship Company, 44.

October 9.—Dr. John A. Ouchterlony, of Louisville, Ky., 67.

October 10.—Samuel Frederick Nixon, Speaker of the New York Assembly, 45.

October 12.—Gen. William T. Clark, one of the last surviving major-generals of the Civil War, 74.... Ex-Chief Justice Edwin M. Paxson, of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, 81.... Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell, for many years active in New York philanthropic movements, 63.... Prince Sergius Troubetskoi, Russian Liberal leader, 43.

October 13.—Sir Henry Irving, 67 (see page 550).

October 15.—Rev. George Thomas Packard, of Jamaica Plain, Mass., 61.... William M. Armstrong, who was attorney-general of the Hawaiian Islands during the reign of King Kalakua.

October 16.—Stephen Francis Gale, one of the oldest settlers in Chicago, 93.... William Lewis Fraser, formerly art manager of the *Century Magazine*, 64.

October 17.—Thomas Mills Day, a member of the famous Yale class of 1837, 87.

SOME POLITICAL CARTOONS OF THE
SEASON.



NEW YORK'S DISTRICT ATTORNEY, WILLIAM TRAVERS JEROME, IN THE BOSSES' DEN.

From the *World* (New York).



TAMMANY LEADER MURPHY "SEEIN' THINGS AT NIGHT."
(His visitors are Ivins, Hearst, and Jerome.)
From the *Press* (New York).



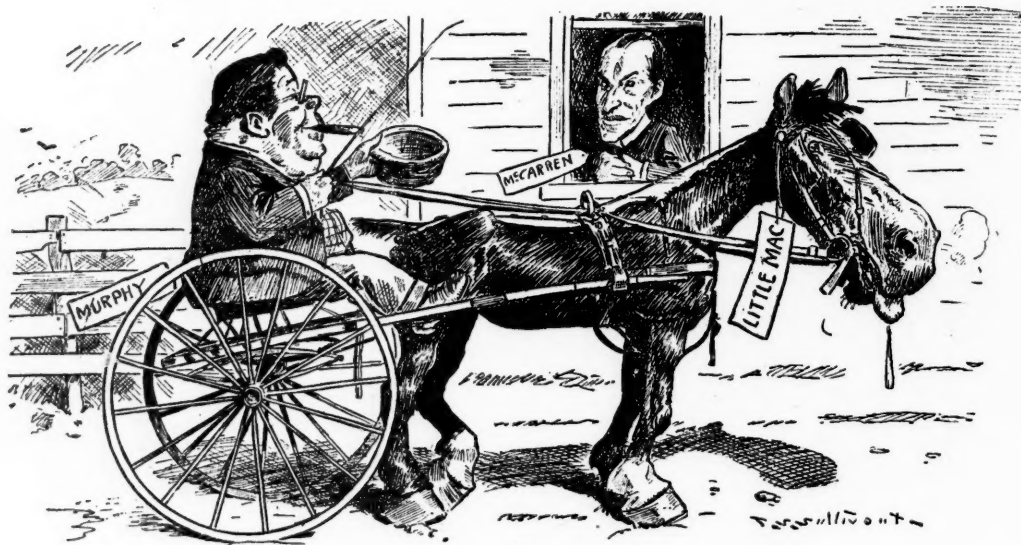
FATHER KNICKERBOCKER PUZZLED AS TO HIS CHOICE FOR
MAYOR.—From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



THANK YOU, NO!
(Chief Counsel Hughes declines the nomination for mayor.)
From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).



IVINS AS THE MAILED KNIGHT WHO FEARS NO FOE.
From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).



DAVID HARUM UP TO DATE.

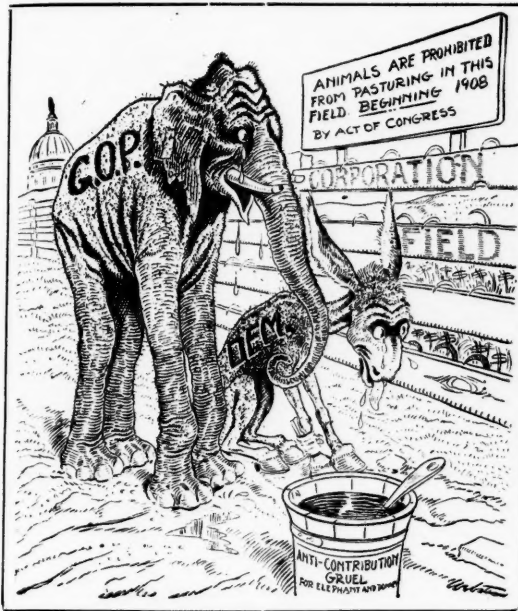
LEADER MURPHY: "That hoss aint got a scratch ner a pimple on him. He's sound an' kind an' 'ill stand without hitchin', an' a lady c'd drive him as well's a man."—From the *American* (New York).



THE OHIO DEMOCRACY UP AGAINST IT AGAIN.
From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



MAYOR DUNNE, OF CHICAGO, SORELY IN NEED OF HELP.
From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



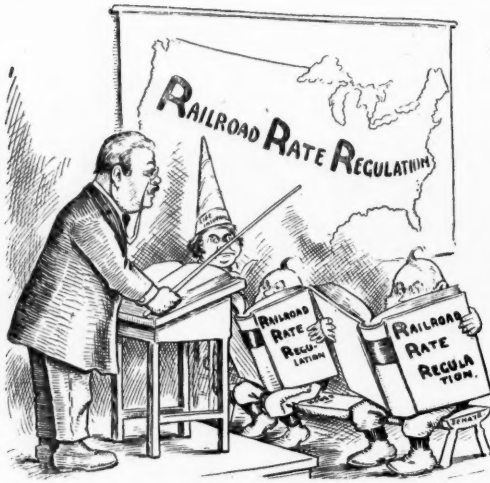
A GLOOMY OUTLOOK FOR THE ANIMALS IN THE NEXT NATIONAL CAMPAIGN.
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



THE PRESIDENT'S DETERMINATION TO HAVE RATE REGULATION CAUSES WORRY TO THE RAILROAD MAGNATES.
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



THE INSURANCE SITUATION.—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



THE THREE R'S.

Professor Roosevelt will impress them upon the pupils of the Congress School.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT BEING WELCOMED TO DIXIE LAND.

From the *Post* (Washington).

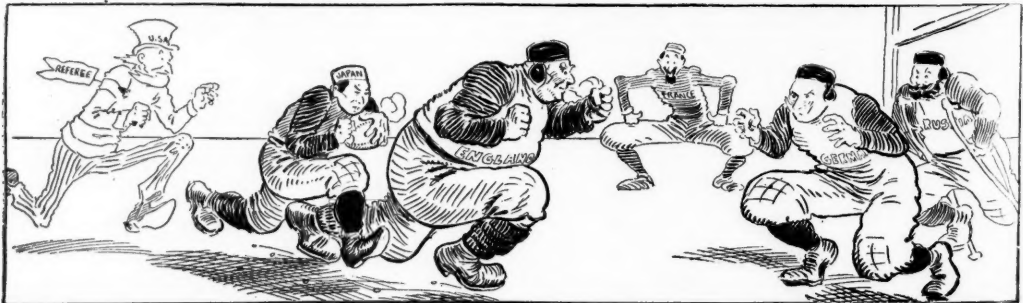


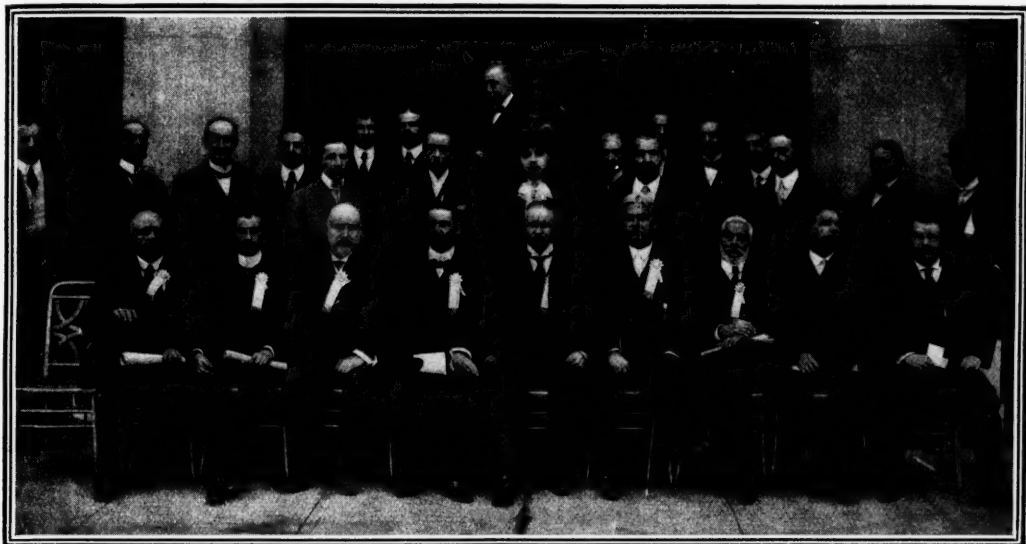
WHAT IT MAY COME TO.

(Peace Missionary Roosevelt in a new rôle.)
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



CHORUS OF GRATERS AT THE WINDOW: "I wonder what he's going to say about us?"—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

THE NEW TANDEM IN THE INTERNATIONAL GAME.—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



Copyright, 1905, by the National Press Association, Washington.

MEMBERS OF THE INTERNATIONAL SANITARY CONGRESS.

(Seated, reading from left to right: Dr. Joaquin Yela [Guatemala]; Dr. D. E. Lavereria [Peru]; Hon. Williams C. Fox [United States]; Dr. Eduardo Moore [Chile]; Surgeon-General Walter Wyman [United States], president of the congress; Dr. Juan J. Ulloa [Costa Rica]; Dr. Juan Guiteras [Cuba]; Dr. E. B. Barnett [Cuba]; Dr. H. L. E. Johnson [United States].)

THE INTERNATIONAL SANITARY CONGRESS AT WASHINGTON.

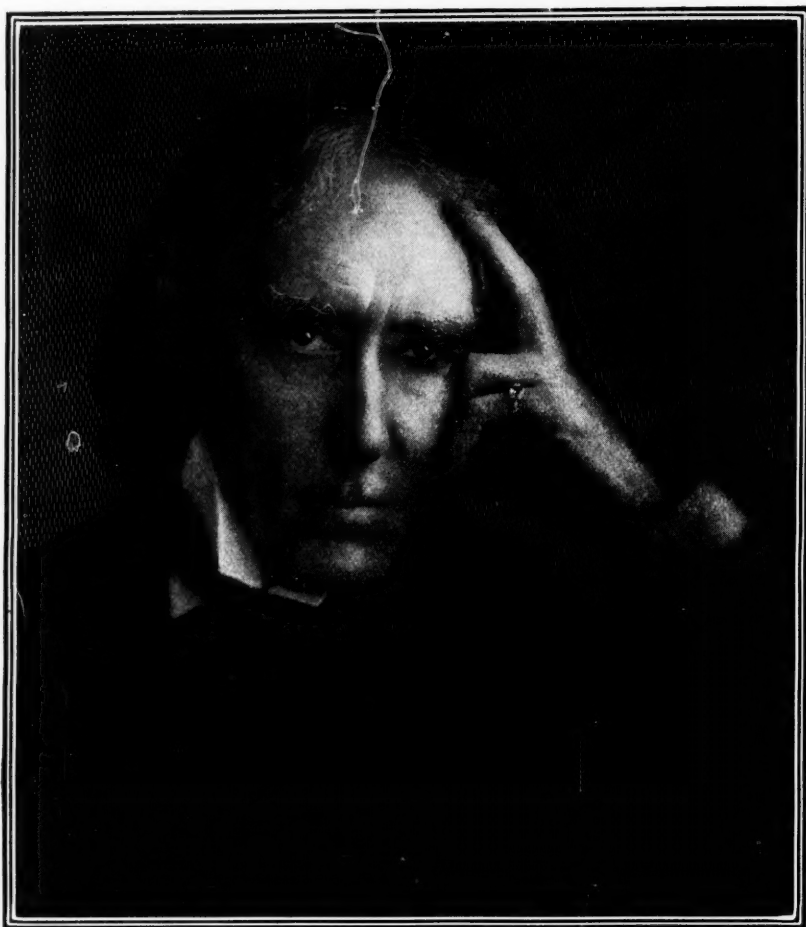
THE recent outbreak of yellow fever in the South, and especially at New Orleans, followed by the bitter controversy between the sovereign States of Mississippi and Louisiana regarding the enforcement of what the latter looked upon as unjust and harsh quarantine measures, tends to add increased importance and interest to the meeting of the International Sanitary Congress, held at Washington, October 9-14. This body met, representing twelve American republics, with a view to formulating some uniform quarantine regulation which would be acceptable to the respective governments represented, and which, while affording absolute protection against infection, would do away with unnecessary expense and hardship. The result of the conference was a convention of forty-nine articles which the several American republics will be asked to ratify and enact into a law.

While the convention deals with sanitary problems generally and other matters properly coming before such a body, those sections relating to quarantine regulation are undoubtedly the most important and of greatest interest to the public at the present time. Accepting the widely circulated mosquito-transmission theory, the con-

vention replaces the shotgun with a mosquito net and substitutes citronelli oil and kerosene for the noisome fumigant.

It provides, further, that upon the entrance of an infected vessel into a port all fever patients shall be at once removed and screened in gauze cages, the mosquitoes on board destroyed, and the cargo unloaded by immune dock hands, or, lacking these, that the laborers who do this work shall remain under the eye of the medical inspector six days. After these precautions have been taken, there is no further detention of the vessel. One inspection of a ship suffices. The mails are to be allowed free transmission between the different countries, regardless of the health conditions at the points from which they are sent, and the convention provides that there shall be no interference with trains at boundary lines or frontiers.

To Surgeon-General Walter A. Wyman, president of the congress, the credit is largely due for its existence and the results it has achieved. The Hon. Williams C. Fox, director of the Bureau of American Republics, has also taken a very active interest in the work of the congress, acting as host.



Copyright by E. W. Husted, New York.

SIR HENRY IRVING.

SIR HENRY IRVING, who died suddenly after a performance at Bradford, England, on the night of October 13, at the age of sixty-seven, was universally recognized as the foremost English-speaking actor. He was, moreover, a great stage manager,—certainly the greatest, from the artistic standpoint, of modern times. Born in poverty and known in early life as John Henry Brodribb, without influential friends, surrounded in the early years of his professional career with difficulties innumerable, he rose by sheer force of his own unaided abilities to the highest place upon the English stage. He rose rapidly, too, all things considered. He began as a youth of eighteen. Long before he was forty his complete triumph was acknowledged. That triumph came, after more than one failure, with Irving's rendition of the part of *Mathias* in

"The Bells,"—a part which he acted on the last night but one of his life. Taking the management of the Lyceum Theater, in London, Irving soon put that playhouse in the first rank, making it notable for all time as the scene of his productions of "The Merchant of Venice," "Faust," "Macbeth," "Henry VIII.," "King Lear," "Becket," and scores of other successful plays. Miss Ellen Terry acted *Ophelia* to Irving's *Hamlet*, and *Portia* to his *Shylock* in the "Merchant of Venice." Together, Irving and Terry acted in the latter play for two hundred and fifty consecutive nights at the Lyceum. Their repeated tours of the United States made them the favorites of the American play-going public. Irving was knighted by Queen Victoria in 1895,—an unprecedented distinction for an actor. His ashes repose in Westminster Abbey.

THE DRIVING POWER OF LIFE INSURANCE.

BY D. P. KINGSLEY.

(Vice-President of the New York Life Insurance Company.)

[Last month there appeared in this magazine Mr. Walter Wellman's review of the life-insurance situation, with his criticisms upon the general methods employed by the great companies. We then informed our readers that in this month's issue there would appear an article written from the standpoint of the expert insurance man who believes in the general principles and methods that have built up the business of several of the insurance societies to stupendous dimensions. The following article, written by Mr. Kingsley, vice-president of the New York Life Insurance Company, undertakes to state affirmatively what the great companies have achieved, and to defend,—not the abuses or faults that may have come to light,—but what he deems the soundness of the policies which have brought the great companies where they are to-day. It is an article that will be read with interest by all who are following the pending discussion.—THE EDITOR.]

THE great American life insurance companies have moved with the spirit of the age. They have made mistakes, but they have not trifled. They have sometimes followed bad judgment, but they have worked incessantly. In common with every great organized human enterprise, they have occasionally developed incompetent and dishonest men; but, on the other hand, the extent and quality of their achievements show to the satisfaction of every fair mind that fine integrity, as well as ability of a high order, has controlled and guided them first and last. Upon the whole, they have kept pace with the very best developments of a marvelous age.

The thing to consider in estimating the work of these companies is not chiefly what mistakes they have made, or wherein they have been wrong, although in a life insurance company mistakes and wrongdoing are subjects for more serious consideration than in any other style of corporation. Still, the real question to consider is, What have the companies really done? Has it been worth while? Has it added something to the sum of human comfort and human advancement? Does it overtop and overwhelm the errors, the bad judgment, which are admitted?

ACHIEVEMENTS OF A DECADE.

Let us glance at a few of the things that three companies located in New York City have done alone within ten years:

First.—They have induced millions of people, drawn from every race, religion, and nationality, to forget their prejudices and remember their duties. Coöperating under a system of mutual protection and investment, these people have paid in cash into a common fund more than \$1,400,000,000.

Second.—They have made their invested funds earn over \$377,000,000.

Third.—They have paid claims by death amounting to over \$430,000,000.

Fourth.—They have paid other benefits to policy-holders amounting to over \$365,000,000.

Fifth.—They have paid altogether to the policy-holders more than \$796,000,000.

Sixth.—They have in ten years increased the number of people insured by over 1,200,000.

Seventh.—They have added to the amount of the insurance protection of the world nearly \$2,400,000,000.

Eighth.—They have increased their resources by over \$696,000,000, and now hold over \$1,244,000,000 for the security and ultimate payment of their contracts.

Ninth.—They have over 2,100,000 living contracts, which will provide their holders, in case of death, with nearly \$5,000,000,000.

Tenth.—By their energy and desire to enforce the principle of mutuality, they have reformed the life-insurance contracts of the world. The life policy of to-day is as unlike the policy of a few years ago as the machinery of the modern cotton factory is unlike the old spinning-jenny. As the result of this—

Eleventh.—They have increased loans to their policy-holders, which ten years ago amounted to \$5,000,000, to over \$86,000,000 at the end of 1904.

Twelfth.—Two of the three companies have devised thoroughly scientific methods of insuring sub-standard lives. One of the three within nine years has issued and placed \$190,000,000 of insurance on lives more or less impaired, lives on which little, if any, insurance could have been obtained elsewhere. This was as distinct an achievement, as definite an addition to the sum of human helpfulness, as a discovery in medical science or improvements in methods of transportation would be. Only a large company could have done it; only a large company,

and the spirit that made it large, would have done it.

Thirteenth.—In spite of all criticism, there is not the slightest doubt in the mind of any intelligent man of their solvency, of the existence of large surpluses, and of their ability to meet obligations greatly in excess of all liabilities.

Fourteenth.—At the present time, they are paying on deferred-dividend contracts, maturing during the lifetime of the insured, from 20 to 100 per cent. more than is guaranteed in the contract itself.

Fifteenth.—The ratio of expenses to premium receipts, notwithstanding an enormously greater new business, was less in 1904 than it was in 1894.

Sixteenth.—The ratio of expenses, taking into account the new business done, is less than that of the smaller companies.

Seventeenth.—Finally, they have handled nearly \$2,000,000,000 in cash with losses through faults of administration so small that it is hardly possible to make a ratio.

THE AGENCY SYSTEM JUSTIFIED BY RESULTS.

These results are large, but they are more wonderful for their quality than for their size. They have been achieved through the methods of ordinary business, by dealings with men in the general world of affairs. These methods are now under fire. The criticisms run along these lines:

We are told that *a company should have no agents*. As well attempt to establish a church without preachers. Few people go directly to a church and ask to be enrolled. Few people will go to a life insurance company and ask membership. The reason is the same in each case. No religion has ever reached and served humanity without organization, without devotees, without the contagious example of enthusiastic advocates. No life insurance company has ever achieved anything worth while without driving its principles home through men—through agents. The attempt has been frequently made to do a life business by intellectual processes merely. The result has always been respectable inanition. There is a sort of Unitarianism in life insurance. There is also a Methodism; and the fire of Roman Catholicism. The great companies are all akin, in their methods, to the aggressive churches. They have followed the same methods, and, in their determination to reach the people, they may even be said at times to have been as undignified and as useful as the Salvation Army.

A DEFENSE OF DEFERRED DIVIDENDS.

We are told that *the deferred-dividend plan is vicious*. Yet it has been as effective in propagat-

ing this gospel as the doctrine of rewards and punishments has been in spreading Christianity. It has been effective because it meets most perfectly the two functions of good life insurance,—protection for dependents and protection against advancing age. The second is just as legitimate and just as necessary as the first. Under the deferred-dividend plan, men agree to help one another as against advancing age, just as they agree to help one another, through insurance, as against the contingency of death. Insurance is necessary because no man knows when he will die; he cannot afford to take the risk alone. Just as no man knows who of a group of men will die within twenty years, so no man knows who of the group will live twenty years. All who live beyond that period will have moved a long way toward that part of life where physical and mental weakness begins. Here is a hazard and a weakness as definite as the hazard of death. By coöperation in the use and distribution of surplus payments and earnings and mortality savings,—which is only another way of describing the deferred-dividend system,—men measurably meet this hazard. The system is juster, stronger, more attractive, and more efficient than the system which distributes surplus annually. It appeals to men. It furnishes capital with which to spread the gospel of insurance. It has done more, perhaps, than any other single device to make life insurance the factor it has come to be in the economic development of the world.

ARE EXPENSES TOO HIGH?

We are told that *the business has cost too much*. Generally speaking, it has cost most in the companies that have done least. The test applied by current criticism is to find out what the ratio is between expenses and total income. This ratio is supposed by its size to indicate extravagance or economy. As a matter of fact, there are few tests so inconclusive, few that prove so little as to the wisdom or unwisdom of a company's management. This ratio is certain to be high in any active, successful company, however wisely managed. This arises from the fact that while new business ultimately pays its own acquisition expense and is not a charge on business done in previous years, still the initial expense always exceeds the expense-loading in the first year's premium. Practically all new business anticipates and uses some portion of the loading of future premiums. The loading is added for that purpose. The portion anticipated is returned as future premiums are paid; but it follows inevitably that a large new business, however soundly done, means that this style of ratio will be high. A company in which this

ratio is 25 per cent. may be managed wisely ; and another in which this ratio is 18 per cent. may be managed extravagantly ; and another in which the ratio is only 10 per cent. may be paying excessive prices for business. The real question is : What does a company get for the money it spends ? If a company spends 25 per cent. of its income in a year and gets in return a large, well-selected business, done under reasonable contracts with agents, it has done well, it is growing—growing both in strength and usefulness. If a company spends 18 per cent. of its income annually and gets a very small business, done under extravagant contracts and haphazard management, it has not done well—it is not growing either in strength or usefulness. If a company spends only 10 per cent. of its income annually, that fact alone is almost conclusive proof that it is passing into a condition of inanition and relative uselessness. The little business that such a company does is likely to be done at a heavier cost than the business done by a company with a virile organization. Sound organization generally means economy ; success breeds success. A just study of expenses must include a consideration of what expenditure brings. In the great companies, it has brought enormous development, the widest usefulness, the vigor of an almost immeasurable strength, and returns to the insured which with proper allowance for the cost of indemnity surpass the returns realized during the same time on conservative investments. The ratio under discussion is higher here than abroad because of the larger relative volume of business done here. It is higher now than it was thirty years ago, chiefly because of the greater activities of the companies, their rapid growth and increasing usefulness through the acquisition of new business.

PREMIUMS LOWER HERE THAN ABROAD.

We are told that *premiums are too high*. This indicates a short memory. We are just clear of a period in the development of life insurance full of scandals, losses, and sufferings, caused by attempts to do business with inadequate premiums. Assessment insurance flourished on the cry that the level-premium companies were robbers ; but the operation of a law as inexorable as the law of gravitation answered all such charges and shut the doors of all such enterprises. Premium rates are singularly uniform all over the world. They have been arrived at by using both theory and practice. They have not to any extent been fixed by agreement. The surprising fact, as against this criticism, is that rates are lowest where life insurance is most vigorous, where "expenses," so called, are heavi-

est. The rates of the great American companies are lower than the rates of the English or the German or the French companies. For example, the rate charged for a life policy at age 35 by the New York Life is \$28.11 ; by the Gotha, of Germany, \$29.60 ; by the Equitable, of London (which employs no agents), \$29.92 ; by the Générale, of France, \$30.70. A sufficient premium rate is the very foundation of life insurance. That the great companies have not cut rates in the keen competition for business shows that they have not made such a god of new business as the critics of the hour claim. To reduce premiums would be the first device of weakness, the first resort of irresponsible ambition. With a falling rate of interest, with the adoption of more equitable and liberal policy conditions, premium rates in this country have steadily moved toward a higher level. It would be as fatuous to fix a maximum premium rate by law as it would have been to fix the relative value of gold and silver by law. France is about to fix a minimum premium rate. She proposes to see that no company makes less than an adequate charge. The new French rates, which are the result of most careful study, will probably be in excess of any corresponding rates used in this country.

SHALL THE COMPANIES STOP GROWING ?

We are told that *the companies have gone mad in their desire for mere bigness*. An explanation of the growth of these companies involves more than ambition, more than the impetus of vanity. It involves an appreciation of an unparalleled opportunity and the inspiration that naturally comes from such an outlook. Even Standard Oil cannot be explained without making a large allowance for brains and hard work.

We are told that *the growth of the companies must be limited by law*. If an intelligent supervision and a sound system of accountability, exercised by the State or by the federal government, results in checking the growth of life insurance companies, no one will complain. But if we fix limits which paternally kill, why not paternally say that people shall have only so many hospitals, only so many schools, only so much sunshine. Any plan which aims to kill, and not rationally to regulate, must be in effect a declaration that coöperation, the great hope of the modern world, has broken down utterly in its first trial. It has not broken down, but it may be possible to break it down. The whole matter will adjust itself without paternal interference. It is probable that the top of the curve expressing the growth of the great life companies has already been passed. The margin

of insurance added each year over insurance lost from all causes is already growing smaller. With any rational limitation of expenses, this margin will very probably soon be wiped out. This would mean the limit of a company's growth in the matter of outstanding insurance, and would in turn necessarily fix a limit to the assets. There could be no objection to a limitation achieved in that way.

We are told that *we should have a standard policy form*. Why not paternally legislate that all women should wear dresses of the same color, made after the same pattern? It would be as American and as rational.

We are told that *such great accumulations of money are dangerous*. Public debts vastly in excess of these accumulations do not seem to alarm us. The waste of the last eighteen months in Manchuria surpasses by more than two to one the combined accumulations of the three great companies at the end of sixty years. Is waste, and loss, and debt, then, a better thing than prudence, and savings, and the vast conservative force which these assets represent?

None of these criticisms really express a comprehensive knowledge of what life insurance is, or why these three companies have made such enormous successes. Few of the suggested reforms are of value, because nearly all of them assume that there is something inherently wrong or evil in life insurance itself.

THE REAL MEANING OF LIFE INSURANCE.

A brief consideration of the fundamental ideas and moving forces which lie back of this development will give us a better view of what life insurance really means.

Life insurance is first of all a conviction. The insurant is almost always a convert. The man who directs a life company with any measure of success is always full of moral as well as physical energy. No man can understand life insurance and believe in it and preach it effectively who does not feel its driving power. The genuine life-insurance man is a descendant of those men who have through all history accomplished something, acting under the force of an impulse which is as much moral as mental.

The idea of life insurance implies, not merely a duty to dependents, but a duty to other men. Life insurance deals with human life, and human life is the most important fact within the range of human knowledge. All organized society is an attempt, in some form, to advance the condition, to improve the outlook, to husband the power of human life. Governments are human life protecting, guarding, and developing itself. Religions are human life struggling with the

problems of origin and end. Philosophies, from the Epicurean to the Spencerian, deal with the same problem.

Life insurance differs from all other attempts to conserve and protect human life in that it realizes from the outset the thing of supreme value. Indirectly, it seeks to advance the interests of the world through sound morals and sound finance and good hygiene and all rational agencies; but, directly, it cuts across all ordinary processes and boldly declares that the one thing of supreme value in this world is human life. With this it deals direct, just as the merchant deals with merchandise and the philosopher with his dreams. Dealing with this precious material, what ought its ambitions to be? What should it seek to accomplish? What ought its development to be? What ideals should it have?

SIGNIFICANCE OF GROWTH.

Most human enterprises are restricted by material or by opportunity. Life insurance has no such limitations. From the beginning, it faced a universal need; it dealt with the source of all values. The wonder is, not that great things have come out of the life-insurance idea, but rather that they did not come sooner. Its ambition could not be small. What it aimed to do, if well done could not be unimportant. Any real development must involve great numbers of men and great values. Ideals which could inspire a wise leadership in such an undertaking must be high.

The growth of a few life insurance companies is perhaps the most striking feature in an age full of remarkable activities. Most of the giants of modern corporate life are the result of amalgamation and combination. They are huge, but their parts existed before. This is particularly true of the great railroad systems and the great industrial enterprises. The tremendous expansion of certain life companies within recent years has been a distinct achievement. The development has been genuine growth. The fact that one company in six years added to its outstanding insurance a thousand million dollars, a sum equal to its outstanding insurance fifty-four years after its organization, makes a startling contrast in achievement; and that the last billion of insurance was secured at a saving of \$20,000,000 over the cost of the first billion makes an even more startling contrast in methods.

THE GREAT COMPANIES AS PIONEERS.

The life companies which have had this prodigious growth have not had an easy time,—the result was no accident. They have had to face all the problems and all the difficulties that

have confronted other corporations. They have had to do pioneer work. In carrying the gospel of life insurance to foreign lands, to countries where our ideas on the subject were almost unknown, where conditions were naturally hostile, they have duplicated much of the story of the early conquest of our own country.

They have been pioneers, too, in another field. They have first presented to the country generally, in concrete form, a definite expression of what coöperation and the modern way of doing things really involve. The ordinary man was not ready for this. He believed in coöperation; he believed that thereby his condition would be bettered; that he could eliminate waste and do away with much injustice. He did not understand, however, what it meant to have a million men combine for a definite purpose, running through a period of years. He wanted the product of coöperation, but with the processes necessary to achieve that product he is even now not familiar. He is more or less afraid of his own programme when it takes practical form.

There are real dangers attending all pioneer work. The men who settled the Ohio Valley, the men who discovered Oregon, made a contribution to the sum of human advancement and human comfort that is literally beyond all calculation; but in doing it, they faced very real dangers. It would be difficult to-day to find any one who would say that what they undertook was not worth while because it was attended with severe effort. The great American life companies, responding to the opportunity and to what may be called the driving power of the life-insurance ideal, faced most complex problems when they went beyond the borders of their own country carrying this gospel. They faced real dangers as they developed in their own country, dangers which will measurably disappear as the people come to comprehend the vast beneficence which these companies have already wrought, the vaster work which they must do, and when they come to understand, in addition, that coöperation does not mean a smaller world, but a larger one; not less power, but more; not a simpler civilization, but one vastly more complex.

One of the current questions is whether the companies were justified in facing these dangers aggressively? Wouldn't it have been better to let things drift? Wouldn't it have been easier to wait?

But suppose George Rogers Clark had waited instead of marching on Kaskaskia and Vincennes? Suppose Robert Livingston and James Monroe had shuffled over Louisiana in 1803? Suppose Lewis and Clark had delayed in fixing our title to the Oregon country? Suppose any

of our great opportunities as a nation had been faced flabbily instead of aggressively?

That the verdict concerning the pioneers and fighting leaders in life insurance will finally be exactly what it is now with regard to the great pioneers who so mightily influenced our destinies as a country is as certain as the future progress of the race. Just now, however, we are face to face with one of the periods of doubt and hesitation in the public mind. This arises—first, from the unfamiliarity of the public with such colossal results; and, second, from the development in the management of these enterprises of that weakness which can be traced in every human enterprise, a weakness which seldom if ever strikes very deep, and never seriously retards the progress of events.

SOME COMPANIES HAVE WASTED THEIR OPPORTUNITIES.

Striking illustrations of the present attitude of people toward life insurance are to be found in the frequent references now made to the Equitable Life Assurance Society of London, and to a gentleman, lately deceased, who was for thirty-five years the president of the Connecticut Mutual of Hartford. These two companies, the Equitable of London and the Connecticut Mutual, represent extreme illustrations of what one ideal of life insurance can produce; while the three great New York City companies are examples of what another ideal has thus far produced. The Equitable of London has been doing business for one hundred and fifty years under the most favorable conditions and in the very center of opportunity. The quality of what it has done is beyond discussion,—it is good. The quantity of its achievements is so pitiful alongside of what its opportunity and duty demanded that people who cite it as a life-insurance model can hardly understand the logic of their own reference. If what this company has done and is make it a model of what a life insurance company ought to do and to be, then we ought to stop using electricity and steam, we ought to substitute the stage-coach for the limited train, we ought to abandon the ocean greyhound and return to the sailing vessel.

The other company offers an equally striking illustration. When Mr. Jacob L. Greene became president of the Connecticut Mutual, in 1869, it was the largest and most prosperous life insurance company in the United States. When he died, recently, the company was smaller than when he took it and doing less than half the business annually that it did forty years earlier. There can be no discussion as to the opportunity which this company enjoyed from

1869 to 1905. We all know the history of our country, and know what has been done within that period. We are all proud of it. We know, in a general way, what it means to the world as well as to us. We know, too, that in working out this development many mistakes have been made. It was a hard tussle, a constant fight. But who, now that the lapse of time gives us a better comprehension of what was done, thinks much about the mistakes, except as they teach lessons for the future? Who doesn't rejoice that there was a struggle? Who isn't proud if it so happened that he or his forbears had a hand in the struggle?

It is difficult to find a man who will say that the railroad development of the country within forty years has not been worth while; there have been times when such men could be found a-plenty. It would be more difficult to find a man who will say that the development of the West during that time has not been worth while. It would be almost impossible to find a man who visited the St. Louis Exposition, faced the great peristyle of the States, and was not overwhelmed with the majesty and utility of a movement which, in spite of dangers, in spite of fears, in spite of mistakes, created those great commonwealths. Yet, we can find numbers of men to-day who look at the achievements of recent years in life insurance and have very grave doubts as to whether it was worth while. They are rather disposed to applaud and praise the trifler—the man who walked through this field of opportunity and did nothing; the men who had placed in

their hands the power to accomplish real things and threw it away. There is a disposition to applaud the record, or rather the lack of record, of a company like the old Equitable of London, and to commend the management of the Connecticut Mutual, both of which ran away from their duty and frittered away a glorious opportunity.

The great life companies have had to face all the dangers that have surrounded corporate development in recent years. The companies have had to deal with men, they have had to deal with legislators, they have had to deal with various laws variously administered by forty-five States, and as many other countries lying beyond our borders. They have made mistakes. They will make other mistakes. It is easy to exaggerate the mistakes; it is easy to refuse to see anything but these mistakes. It may take some time for the great public, which is now harried and alarmed, to comprehend that these stupendous achievements are after all thoroughly sound, and full of promise for the future.

In spite of errors, in spite of mistakes, in spite of some maladministration, the work of the great companies stands high among the things nobly done during this generation.

They have worked out the first great problem in coöperation. They have met a world-wide opportunity and need with adequate plans backed by enormous energy. They have rendered a service which in practical beneficence and usefulness, both to the individual and to the state, has not been surpassed.

THE JEW IN AMERICAN HISTORY.

BY MAX J. KOHLER.

(Corresponding secretary of the American Jewish Historical Society.)

ARRANGEMENTS are being made throughout the United States for the celebration, on Thanksgiving Day, of the two-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the settlement of the Jews in the United States, and representative Jews in every State and Territory are active on committees appointed to take charge of this commemoration. The approaching Thanksgiving Day will thus have a special significance for the million and a quarter of Jews residing in this land, who will then invoke God's blessing on this beloved country, which, first among the nations of modern times, recognized the Jew's title to all the rights of man, and permitted him, in common with all other members of the body politic, to

worship the Almighty Father according to the dictates of his own conscience.

In 1655, at a time when the terrors of the Inquisition threatened the Jew who disregarded Spanish and Portuguese edicts of expulsion, when France and most sections of Germany were closed to him, and when Menasseh ben Israel was about to begin his only partially successful negotiations with Cromwell for a repeal of Edward I.'s edict of expulsion of the Jews from England, the directors of the Dutch West India Company, which governed New York at the time, instructed Governor Stuyvesant, with respect to a petition submitted by professing Jews who had arrived at New Amsterdam from Bra-

zil the year before, that Jews "shall have permission to sail to and trade in New Netherland, and to live and remain there, provided the poor among them shall not become a burden to the Company or the community, but be supported by their own nation." Contemporary construction of this grant shows that it was not intended to be limited by unexpressed conditions, and hence it may be regarded as the first great charter of civil and political rights made to Jews in modern times. But the American Jews emphasize, in this commemoration, also the further fact that they are not mere recent arrivals and interlopers on this continent, but, without reference even to the very material aid they had afforded to Columbus in furtherance of his discoveries and their very extensive settlements in South America and the West Indies during the period immediately following the discovery, have been among the pioneers in this land, entitled to be counted, in priority of settlement, alongside of the Pilgrim Fathers and the Jamestown settlers.

As American precedents in the direction of Jewish emancipation and the good results flowing therefrom were invoked as potent arguments in favor of the bestowal of similar rights by the leaders of the French Revolution as well as by English Liberal leaders, and have been commended to the attention of Russia and Roumania in our own day by President Roosevelt and his late lamented Secretary of State, John Hay, it is obvious that interest in this anniversary is not confined to the Jews living on this side of the Atlantic. Nay more, questions concerning establishment of religious liberty commonly presented themselves in history connected with political consequences, advantageous or disadvantageous, to be apprehended, especially in relation to struggles between Christian and Mohammedan, Catholic and Protestant, High Church and Low Church, so that it may be doubted whether any better example can be found anywhere than in the matter of treatment of the Jew, for the study of the development of religious liberty. In America the Jew first achieved equality before the law. In the beautiful language of David Dudley Field, "the greatest achievement ever made in the cause of human progress is the total and final separation of the state from the Church;" this nation "first rent the shackles that priestly domination had been forging for centuries, and solemnly decreed that no man should dare intercept the radiance of the Almighty upon the human soul."

EARLY JEWISH RELATIONS TO AMERICA.

In spite of prohibitions upon Jewish settlement in Spanish and Portuguese lands, Jews

settled in ever-increasing numbers in South America and the West Indies during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, though the chief sources of our information concerning them are the bloody records of the Inquisition. In singular contrast to the Spanish adventurer, the Jew proved to be a particularly valuable economic acquisition, and we find that it was chiefly through his efforts that Brazil's sugar factories and diamond interests developed, nearly all the profitable centers of these industries being in Jewish hands, and becoming practically valueless after their expulsion, in 1654. Some idea of the enormous number in which Jewish fugitives from the Iberian Peninsula settled in Brazil is afforded by the circumstance that over five thousand resided in the city of Recife alone at the time of its surrender by the Dutch to the Portuguese, shortly before the Dutch grant now being commemorated.

The grant of 1655 expressly recites, among the inducing causes for its promulgation, the heavy losses sustained by the Jews by reason of the surrender of Brazil and the heavy Jewish holdings of stock in the Dutch West India Company, among whose directors they were also to be counted. In fact, the proffer of Jewish assistance in effecting a proposed capture of Brazil was largely instrumental in shaping the character of the charter awarded to the Dutch West India Company on its organization, and the pecuniary returns from these very features made possible such economically unattractive colonizing efforts as the settlement of New Amsterdam. When the Dutch capitulation of Brazil took place, in 1654, thousands of fugitive Jews, frequently despoiled of their property, fled northward to the West Indies, and a small party of twenty-three arrived on the ship *St. Caterina* at New Amsterdam about September 1, 1654. Stuyvesant's reception of them was decidedly unfriendly and hostile, and the grant of 1655 was made in answer to a petition to the directors asking for relief against the measures of the irascible, bigoted governor.

Coming down, then, more specifically to the history of the Jews within the present limits of the United States, it should be noted that we may divide that history into three periods, each of which may be designated as marked by the arrival of a different stream of immigration. The first period, ending about 1812, may be styled the period of Sephardic migration, most of the Jewish settlers being of Spanish or Portuguese stock, and numbering in all only about three thousand at the close of the period for the whole United States, about one-sixth of whom had settled in New York; next came the period

of German migration, running down to about 1880, when the total Jewish population of the country was estimated at about 250,000, of which number about 100,000 resided in New York City. An appreciable number of Austro-Hungarian and Polish immigrants arrived during the closing decades of this period, other nationalities being also represented. It is due chiefly to the heavy migration from Russia and Roumania since 1880, by reason of anti-Semitic persecution, that the Jewish population of the country has increased during the past twenty-five years from about a quarter of a million to a million and a quarter, and of Greater New York from 100,000 to about 750,000.

DEVELOPMENT OF CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS.

After Stuyvesant's plans for the expulsion of a party of these Brazilian Jewish arrivals at New York were frustrated by the instructions of the directors of the company, he continued for a time to block full Jewish enjoyment of civil and political rights, denying to them right to trade in the adjacent districts and to own real estate and to become burghers, but sharp rebukes from his superiors in Holland soon compelled him to grant these privileges. Even the directors, however, in measuring Jewish rights in large degree by those enjoyed in Holland, forbade public Jewish worship while sanctioning private services in individual households, prohibited their engaging in retail trade or holding public office, and even directed the establishment of a Ghetto, though, fortunately, there is no proof that such survival of the Dark Ages ever actually disgraced any section of territory within the limits of the United States. After the British conquest of New York, the rights of Jews, fortunately for them, continued to be governed by the established customs of the colony, instead of by the more illiberal and uncertain British laws, though this resulted in a declaration, in 1685, that Jews were not to be allowed to trade at retail or to hold public worship. Within a very short period thereafter, however, Jewish religious rites were performed so openly that the Jewish synagogue is pictured and described on the Miller map of New York of 1695, and a Jewish cemetery was established as early as 1656, on New Bowery, near Oliver Street, marked to-day by an appropriate tablet erected a few years ago.

A number of years before Parliament passed the Act of 1740, permitting Jews to be naturalized in the British colonies, the New York Colonial Assembly had enacted laws permitting Jews to omit the words "upon the true faith of a Christian" when taking the oath prescribed

upon being naturalized, and Jews were in the enjoyment of all civil and political rights in New York during many years before these were guaranteed to them by such fundamental organic laws as the New York Constitution of 1777 and the federal Constitution. While their treatment was not quite so liberal, in general, in the other colonies where they had settled before the Revolution, which included Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Maryland, South Carolina, and Georgia, New York may be regarded as fairly typical in this respect, and the States admitted into the Union after the Revolution, in which Jews often figured as pioneers, never attempted in the slightest degree to abridge Jewish rights, civil or political, so that from the Revolution on, the United States could be pointed to by the oppressed Jews in Europe as illustrating the advantages resulting from absolute religious liberty. It is, conversely, of interest to note that the influence of the Old Testament and the Hebrew Theocracy were very potent forces in shaping the evolution of the government of the Puritan and our own democracy,—tendencies ably delineated by the Hon. Oscar S. Straus in his work on "The Origin of Republican Form of Government in the United States."

Jews AS CITIZENS AND SOLDIERS.

Reciprocally, the Jews in America have ever rejoiced in the proud privilege of performing all the duties of American citizenship, whether on the battlefield, in public life, or in private ranks. In Stuyvesant's day, they vigorously protested against being compelled to pay a special tax instead of standing guard, like other citizens, and accordingly, we find Jews serving, in far more than their due proportion, in our colonial wars, in the Revolution, in the Civil War, and in the late Spanish-American War. The names of over seven thousand Jewish soldiers who served during our Civil War have been collected by the efforts of the Hon. Simon Wolf, of Washington,—an enormous proportion of the total Jewish population of the time. Earlier still, during the Revolution, two reached the rank of colonel, one being Colonel Baum, of Pennsylvania, the other Col. David S. Franks, who was sent to Europe as bearer of the treaty of peace with England when officially signed, and who figured as one of the marshals in President Washington's inaugural procession.

Similarly, a Jewish rabbi marched alongside of two Christian ministers in the procession of 1788 in Philadelphia in honor of the adoption of the Constitution, this, says Col. Thomas W. Higginson, "really constituting the first Parliament of Religions in this country."

He adds: "It seems strange that no historical painter, up to this time, has selected for his theme that fine incident. It should have been perpetuated in art, like the landing of the Pilgrims or Washington crossing the Delaware." It certainly does not detract from the significance of the incident to observe that the existence of this Jewish congregation in Philadelphia at that time was due to the solemn determination of the patriots of the New York congregation to abandon New York *en masse* at the approach of the British, even though the congregation might be disrupted in consequence. But space does not permit enlarging further on the numerous acts of Jewish patriotism that American Jewish historical students have delighted to chronicle, though passing reference must be made to Haym Solomon, the friend of Robert Morris and Madison, the broker through whom Congress received her French and Dutch loans, and who himself loaned several hundred thousand dollars to his adopted country in the darkest days of the Revolution; to Judah Touro, the distinguished Southern philanthropist, who joined Amos Lawrence in making the Bunker Hill monument possible, and to Commodore Uriah P. Levy, ranking officer of our navy at the outbreak of the Civil War, owner of Jefferson's home at Monticello. Similarly, while Judah P. Benjamin, the "brains of the Confederacy," was still a leading advocate of Southern rights in the Senate, such Jewish Abolitionists as the Rev. Dr. David Einhorn, Michael Heilprin, and Moritz Pinner awakened the Jewish conscience against slavery in the North. The number of Jews who have held high public office in the United States Senate and in Congress, on the State and the federal bench, as representatives of their country abroad, and at the head of their municipal governments,—aye, even as governors of States,—makes a most respectable showing.

JEW IN COMMERCE.

It may be frankly conceded that it is in the field of commerce, however, that the Jews rendered most valuable services to this country, and this was even more true, probably, during the century preceding our Revolutionary War than in our own day. Joseph Addison, writing in his felicitous style in the *Spectator* in 1712 with respect to a matter peculiarly familiar to him as an official of the British colonial office, said of the Jews that "they are, indeed, so disseminated through all the trading parts of the world that they are become the instruments by which the most distant nations converse with one another and by which mankind are knit together in a general correspondence." Before

the days of defined foreign, or even intercolonial, trade, therefore, laws shutting retail trade to the Jews made them pioneers and prime promoters of such newly created trade, which became, not merely profitable, but actually indispensable, for our colonies. Aaron Lopez, of Newport, who owned a fleet of thirty vessels shortly before the Revolution, engaged in trade between Newport, the West Indies, and Africa; Louis Gomez and his sons were exporters of wheat on a very large scale in colonial New York early in the eighteenth century; Jacob Franks, of New York, and David Franks, of Philadelphia, were the royal purveyors of army supplies during the French and Indian War; Hayman Levy, the fur dealer of Revolutionary New York, had close relations with the American Indians, and was at one time the employer of John Jacob Astor, and David Gradis and his sons largely controlled the trade of France with America before our Revolution.

Jews were among the founders of the New York Chamber of Commerce, and one, Sampson Simson, figures on its seal as a member of the committee receiving its charter from the colonial governor. They were also among the founders of the New York Stock Exchange, and ever since that time have been growing in importance in America as bankers, brokers, financiers, and railroad magnates, as well as in such lines of trade as cotton, tobacco, coffee, jewelry, metals, leather, meats, cloak and shirt industries, and department stores. On the other hand, when we turn to a suggestive letter written by Mrs. L. Maria Childs in 1834 with reference to the thousands of Jewish immigrants, practically destitute, then arriving in New York from Germany, to escape unfavorable economic and legal conditions, "not rich as Jews" in the traditional sense, but rich only in hopes and energy and enterprise, and remember how many achieved a competence, if not large fortunes, in a few decades, we note the analogy between these German Jewish immigrants and the Russian of our own day,—the unskilled laborer whom we encounter in our large cities, working with indomitable zeal in order to graduate from the "sweat-shop." Throughout the country we may to-day encounter the descendants of Jewish peddlers of a few decades ago, eager to bring sacrifices for the beloved land that has done so much for them in opening to them the paths leading to comfort and culture.

With schools and colleges welcoming them, the American Jews to-day rejoice in the fact that practically every large American university has important chairs filled by Jewish professors, and that they rank high among this country's

distinguished lawyers and physicians, journalists and artists, inventors and playwrights. Thomas Jefferson, in a letter too little known (directed to Isaac Harby and dated January 6, 1826), pointed out that, on his own initiative, he had abolished the enforced study of Christian theology in the university over which he presided, so that such cruel obstructions to Jewish scholarship should no longer bar Jewish admission to higher secular learning; yet even the unfavorable conditions of our early history permitted Jews to furnish to our country such apostles of culture as Lorenzo da Ponte, the father of Italian literature and Italian opera in America; John Howard Payne, the son of a Jewish mother, who taught us to chant "Home, Sweet Home;" Emma Lazarus, Strakosch, and Leopold Damrosch, and, latest of all, American Jewish scholarship has now created the "Jewish Encyclopædia," the proudest monument of Jewish learning of the last three centuries.

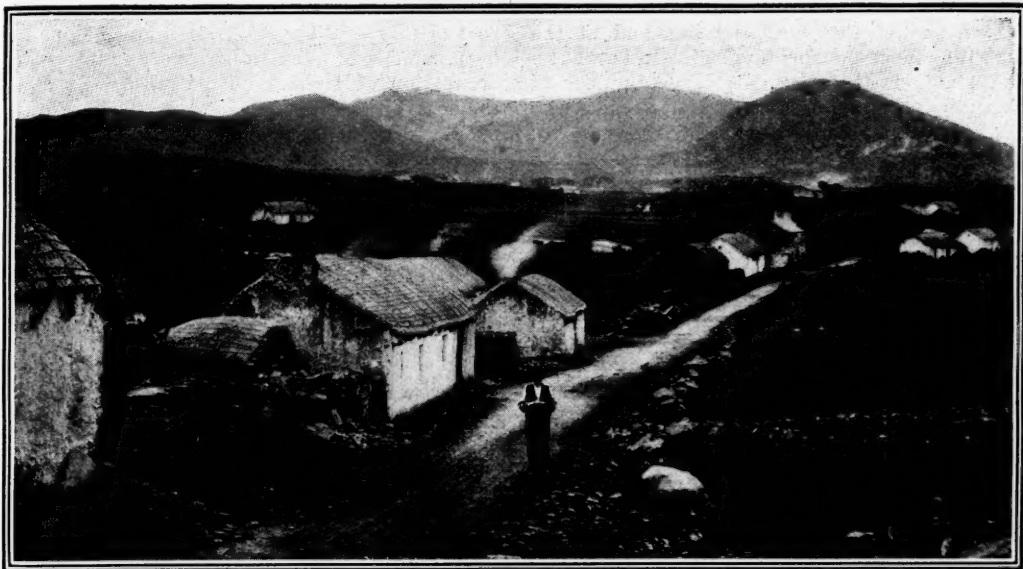
CHARITABLE AND RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS.

The condition imposed at the outset upon Jewish settlement in New York,—to wit, that the poor should not become a public charge,—has been faithfully performed by the successors of the pioneers, usually quite unaware that such pledge was ever exacted, and Jewish organized charity is certainly unsurpassed by that of any other denomination. Throughout the land, noble palaces of benevolence have been erected and maintained, and even the burden of aiding nearly a million persecuted coreligionists who arrived here during the past twenty-five years, beginning at the bottom of the economic ladder, has been cheerfully assumed. Religious and moral exaltation is afforded through the hundreds of synagogues, orthodox and reform, maintained throughout the land, and the two theological seminaries located in New York and Cincinnati, respectively. To mitigate the evils of congestion in the large cities, removal bureaus have been opened, and scientific methods adopted to make the alien fugitive from Russia and Roumania a worthy and valuable, self-respecting and God-fearing, American citizen. Educational alliances and Baron de Hirsch funds and the like supplement ordinary measures to hasten the progress of the "Americanization of the Jewish immigrant." Fortunately, such non-Jews as Peter Cooper, Carnegie, and Phipps have heartily supplemented such efforts for the amelioration of adherents of another race, just as history records that Benjamin Franklin, Thomas McKean, William

Bradford, and others contributed, in 1788, to a Christian fund for the maintenance of a Jewish synagogue in Philadelphia, unconsciously following the example of a little band of New York Jews who contributed their mite, in 1711, to a fund for building a steeple for Trinity Church. The historian of Trinity points out that Jewish subscribers contributed five pounds twelve shillings and threepence to a fund of three hundred and twelve pounds, there being seven subscribers, headed by the rabbi, on a list entitled "The Jews' Contributions."

PLANS FOR THE CELEBRATION.

The plans for the present celebration are meeting with a cordial response in every section of the land, and embrace appropriate exercises to be held on Thanksgiving Day at Carnegie Hall, in New York, and religious services in all the synagogues and Jewish Sabbath schools and similar institutions throughout the land. An appropriate permanent memorial will be erected in New York City in commemoration of the event, with a fund of approximately one hundred thousand dollars being raised by popular subscription among the Jews of the United States. The circumstance that the "General Committee" in charge of the celebration contains representatives from every State and Territory in the Union indicates how completely the Jews have identified themselves with every section of the land. It is not without interest to observe that the committee in charge includes, among others, twelve Jewish judges of the State and federal courts, fifteen college professors, three gentlemen who have occupied seats in the United States Senate and four from the House of Representatives, two attorney-generals of the Empire State, three ex-mayors of important cities, eight well-known editors, two artists, five well-known financiers, twenty-two lawyers, sixty clergymen, seventy-five ministers, and two gentlemen who have represented our country in foreign lands as minister plenipotentiary and consul-general, respectively. The following gentlemen constitute the executive committee in charge of the celebration: Jacob H. Schiff, chairman; Dr. Cyrus Adler, Hon. Samuel Greenbaum, Daniel Guggenheim, Prof. Jacob H. Hollander, Hon. Edward Lauterbach, Adolph Lewisoohn, Louis Marshall, Isaac N. Seligman, Rev. Dr. H. Pereira Mendes, Hon. N. Taylor Phillips, Hon. Simon W. Rosendale, William Salomon, Louis Stern, Hon. Oscar S. Straus, Hon. Mayer Sulzberger, and Max J. Kohler, honorary secretary.



A TYPICAL IRISH LANDSCAPE IN COUNTY DONEGAL, SHOWING EVIDENCE OF AN INTENSIVE CULTIVATION IN THE PAST, BUT NOW TURNED OUT IN GRASS. MOST OF THE HOUSES SHOWN ARE NOW DESERTED.

RURAL IRELAND AS IT IS TO-DAY.

BY PLUMMER F. JONES.

IT is largely as a result of the unprecedented loss of half its population in half a century that the present condition of rural Ireland is so interesting a study. The depopulation of Ireland has largely changed the life of the people, and the Ireland of to-day lacks much of being the Ireland of sixty years ago.

Owing to lack of labor, the former intensive cultivation of the soil has ceased. Tillage has been superseded by pasturage. Thousands of acres that in former years were teeming with laborers planting and working potatoes and turnips, and harvesting wheat and oats, are now turned out in grass, and the song of the laborers and the whetting of scythes have been hushed, and in their place can be heard the lowing of cattle and the tinkling of sheep-bells.

THE EXODUS OF IRISH YOUTH.

In all parts of the middle, south, and west of Ireland one sees evidences of this remarkable change,—more remarkable since the signs of former possession and cultivation are still so evident. For sixty years the young and vigorous farm hands have been dropping the hoe and spade, and emigrating to America, leaving behind them to attempt their work their infirm old parents and their little brothers and sisters,

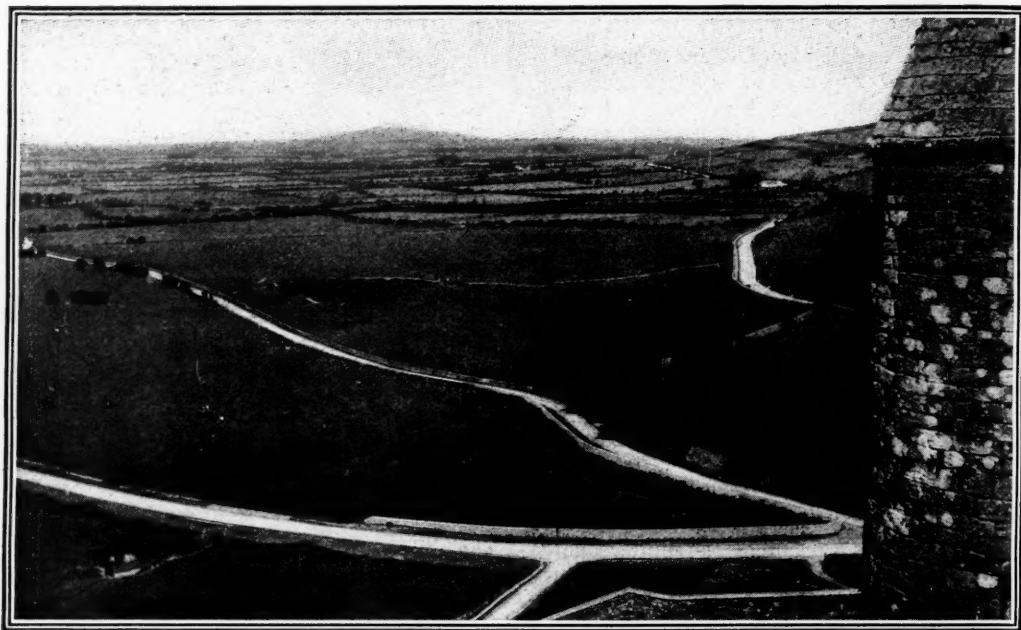
The children dream through their boyhood and girlhood of the time when they in turn can go down to Queenstown and sail on the big ship for New York or Boston. Whole villages have thus been robbed of their young people, and vast country sections that once teemed with vigorous farm laborers now contain but a handful of men who are really capable of hard labor.



A PICTURESQUE IRISH VILLAGE WHICH IS PRACTICALLY DESERTED, THE INHABITANTS HAVING LEFT FOR NEW YORK AND BOSTON.

Indeed, one of the most striking, and at the same time most melancholy, sights in rural Ireland to-day is the unusually large number of despondent-looking old men and women who mope absent-mindedly about the roadways of the country-side or the alleys of the hundreds of semi-deserted villages. Their sons and daughters have grown up and gone to seek their for-

root of that evil, the emigration craze alone has been sufficient to demoralize every industry and occupation of Ireland. No country can stand the loss of the vigorous and active half of its people without suffering dreadfully from it. Rural Ireland to-day is the victim of that dread malady which may be termed the survival of the unfittest. Stagnation in business and all kinds



A VIEW FROM THE ROCK OF CASHEL, A NOTED EMINENCE IN THE HEART OF THE "GOLDEN VALE OF TIPPERARY."

(Forty years ago the meadows shown produced thousands of bushels of potatoes, wheat, oats, and barley. The land is now permanently in grass.)

tunes in the West. Not one in a hundred of them will ever return to hoe and spade the rocky old Irish fields again.*

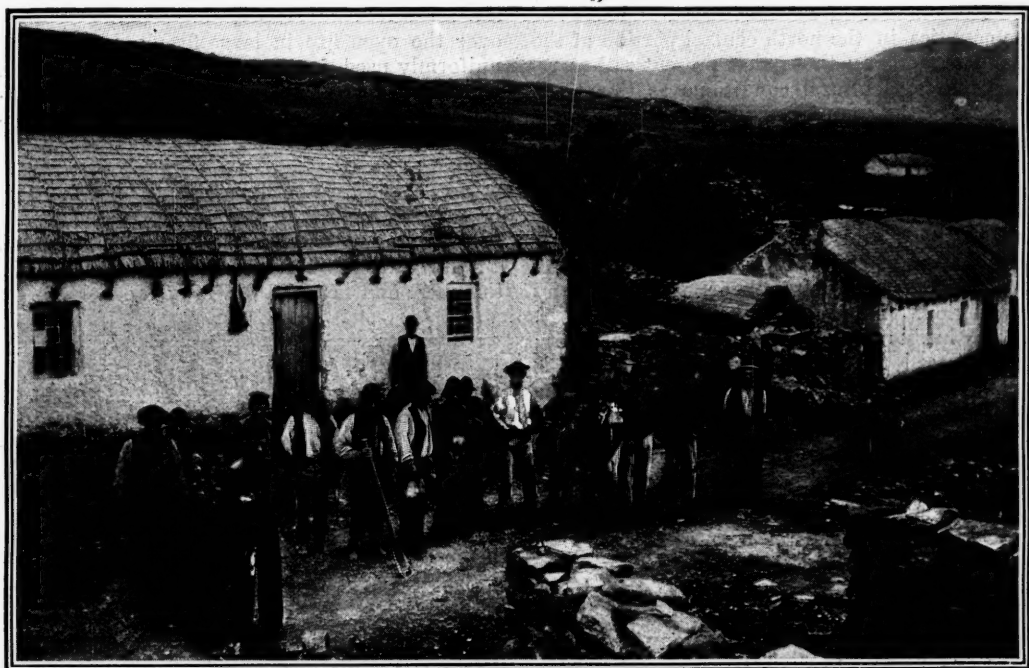
Whatever other obscure evils may be at the

*In 1871, the population of Ireland was 5,412,000; in 1881, this number had decreased to 5,174,000; in 1891, it was 4,704,000; in 1901, the official figures were 4,458,775. From the best estimates obtainable in 1905 the population at this time is about 4,200,000, or about one-half the population of 1845. The next census is expected to show one of the greatest decreases in the recent history of the island. The United States census of 1900 shows that there are more Irish people in New York City alone than there are in the two chief cities of Ireland—Dublin and Belfast—taken together. In the United States there were, according to this census, 1,616,469 people who were born in Ireland, 4,001,461 children both of whose parents were Irish, and 979,586 with one native Irish parent. The total Irish population of the United States, including those with Irish grandparents and great-grandparents, is nearly double that of the mother country to-day. The area of Ireland is 32,583 square miles. This is somewhat less than the area of Indiana, about four times that of Massachusetts, and two-thirds that of New York State.

of labor is the first and most evident result of such a condition.

ULSTER'S PROSPERITY.

There is, however, a section of Ireland which must be excepted from this rule. The island is divided into four great sections which correspond with the kingdoms into which the country was divided at the death of King Brian Boru, —Ulster in the north, Leinster in the east, Munster in the south, and Connaught in the west. Ulster, or at least a portion of it, is so different from the others in almost every way that it has won the term "alien" in all ordinary mention of its characteristics. Here it is that the Scotch and English settled in dispossession of the Irish in the times of Cromwell and James I.; and here they have lived since that time, maintaining their own customs and exercising their charac-



A GROUP OF LABORERS IN COUNTY DONEGAL.

(If these men make ninepence a day and board they are thoroughly satisfied.)

teristic thrift and energy. The counties of Antrim, Down, and Londonderry can hardly be considered as "Ireland" at all.

The farmers of Ulster constitute a strong middle class comparable to that of the United States and England, and they draw large yields from a relatively infertile soil. They live comfortably in substantial houses, and produce large quantities of flax, which is manufactured into linen in the dozens of busy towns situated at their doors. Belfast, the real capital of Ulster, is one of the busiest and most progressive cities in the world. While almost every other city of Ireland decreased greatly in population, Belfast gained at the rate of 27 per cent. during the last decade. All this section is Protestant in religion, and is antagonistic to all that is essentially Irish. In studying Ireland one must remember that it is this Ulster section which makes all the agricultural and commercial statistics, bad at the best, appear as well as they do.

WHERE THE "IRISH QUESTION" IS VITAL.

It is in Leinster and Munster and Connaught that the real Irish question is centered. In this portion of real and typical Ireland, the conditions are most interesting even if in some respects unpleasant to dwell upon. Even in such

wonderfully beautiful and apparently prosperous sections as County Cork and the "Golden Vale of Tipperary" the conditions are yearly growing more acute. It seems but nothing that the soil is rich and the outward conditions favorable. The immense loss of population and the consequent stagnation in business and agriculture has depressed the life of the country, and disheartened those who are left in possession of the soil.

The census of 1901 gives some interesting statistics as to the occupations of the Irish people. Of the 4,458,775, given as to the total population, 131,035 were classed as "professional," 255,144 as "domestic," 83,173 as "commercial," 936,759 as "agricultural," 656,410 as "industrial," and 2,494,958 as "nonproductive and indefinite." The inclusion of considerably more than one-half of the total population of the country in the class of nonproductives tells in no uncertain way the real story of rural Ireland. It is this aimlessness in affairs which has within recent years been furnishing material for so much discussion and agitation for reform on the part of publicists and government experts.

The counties of Kerry, in the southwest; Galway, on the middle western coast; Mayo, the next county to the north of Galway; Sligo

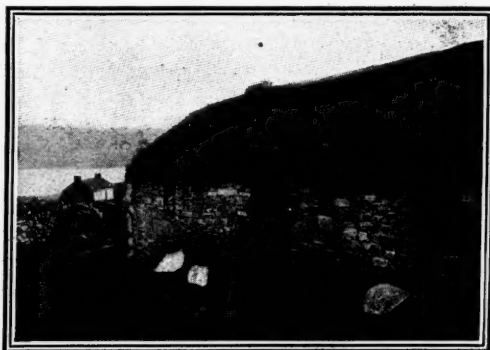
and Roscommon, in the northwest, and some of the counties in the north central portion of the island are among those that present rather remarkable agricultural conditions at this time. In most of the counties named the population is still considerable, and in some cases congested. The soil is in many places rocky, and along the mountain-sides is so rough that the use of elaborate farm machinery, if ever dreamed of by the inhabitants, would be quite impossible. There are no cities and few towns of size in these sections, and there are no mills or factories of any description. The commerce is inconsiderable, though harbors are numerous along the coast; and railroad traffic, as might be expected, is small. The living that the people get must come from the ground.

THE HOUSING OF THE TENANTRY.

Throughout the counties named, as well as in most of south and west Ireland, there are only two classes,—the gentry, who own large portions of the land, and the peasants. The former are seldom seen, while the latter are ubiquitous. The people live generally in one-story stone or mud houses, scattered over the long mountain-sides, or clustered in the little one-street villages peculiar to Ireland. Around these houses one generally finds a small garden patch, in which are raised potatoes and other hardy vegetables. In front of the doors are small inclosures, or yards, walled in with stone, where the family goat, the pigs, the geese, and the chickens are wont to gather, seeking frequent entrance into the dwelling.

The interiors of the houses are too often comfortless and bare. It is seldom that more than one room of a possible two or three has a wooden floor. The others are paved with roughly-fitting flat stones, and are generally damp. There

are no stoves or ranges, and cooking is done over the open fire in large fireplaces. Peat is uniformly used for fuel. The use of coal and wood is generally unknown. There are no verandas or porches to the Irish farmhouses; the windows are small square holes cut through the thick walls and stopped with from four to eight panes of glass. Ventilation is unprovided for. Frequently a pigsty or a stable for the cow is inclosed under the same roof of thatch, which is a coating of straw from six inches to a foot in thickness and fastened down by ropes.



A "THIRD-CLASS" IRISH HOUSE IN COUNTY DONEGAL.

Dwellings such as the above are common all through the farming sections of Ireland. It is rather remarkable how little variation there is from the type. They are termed "third class" by the government. The last census shows that there were 251,606 of such in Ireland. The dwellings called "fourth class" are built entirely of mud, and are of one room with one door and one or two very small windows. There are today in remote rural sections of Ireland 9,873 such huts, inhabited by probably thirty or forty thousand people.

The "second-class" houses are found in such cities as Limerick, Cork, Dublin, and Belfast, as well as in the Ulster section and portions of Clare, Tipperary, Kilkenny, and other good farming districts of the south. They are of the general type described in the "third class," when in the country, though they are larger and better kept; and when, in the cities are the comfortable two and three story houses which one sees along the residential streets. Most of the second-class houses are covered with slate or tile, though in the country thatch is still used. There are 500,000 houses of the second class in Ireland. The houses of the "first class" are the "castles" of the gentry and landlords scattered through the country and the houses of the prosperous



A PEASANT'S COTTAGE OF THE "SECOND CLASS" IN SOUTH IRELAND.



THE RIVER SUIR, IN TIPPERARY.

(That might furnish power for thousands of mills and factories. It passes through quiet fields of grass and sleepy villages.)

business men of the cities. There are 75,000 of such in Ireland.

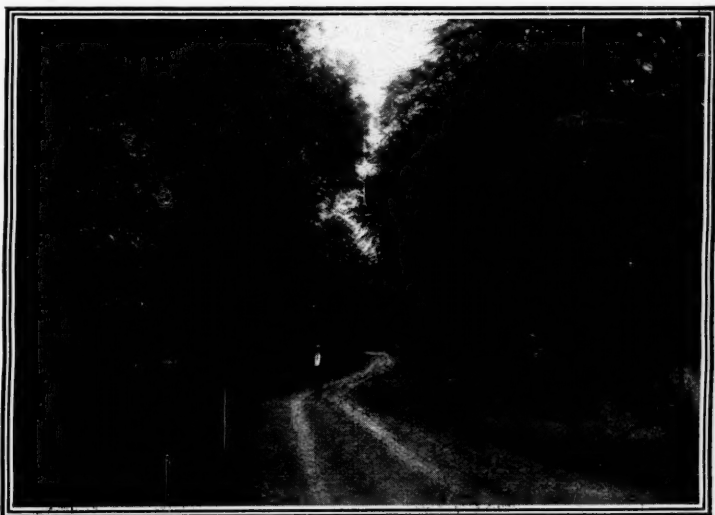
THE RESULTS OF THE NEW LAND LAW.

The landlord question has been the greatest topic in Irish affairs for the past two hundred years. From the time of Cromwell, and before, the Irish have chafed under landlord rule. For many years the tenure system was unregulated by the government, and the landlord had the entire disposition of his estate. The Irish peasantry for generations contended that it was not to their advantage to improve lands upon which heavier rents would be exacted. The government, in 1868, through the first Gladstone land act, recognized the right of the Irish tenant to compensation for improvements effected by him in the soil which he had cultivated, should he be deprived of his holding or should his rent be changed. This was the beginning of legislation, which, through successive acts of Parliament in 1870, 1871, and 1876, modified by more recent enactments, resulted in the passage of a measure, about two years ago, that seems to be in a fair way toward the settlement of the landlord question in Ireland

for all time. The great land act of 1903 provides for the purchase of lands from the landlords by the small farmers and peasants, the government advancing the necessary cash to the purchasers at a nominal rate of interest. Every student of Irish affairs is to-day watching with the closest interest the operations of this gigantic piece of legislation. For the two years since the act has been in force the fullest advantage has been taken of its provisions by the rural Irish, and the large sums set apart by the government to be applied in loans to purchasers were taken up greedily by purchasers in all parts of the country. Many of the priests

of the south and west, quick to recognize the advantages of the offer, have bought land upon the usual terms.

So loud were the demands for additional appropriations to be applied in these land loans that Chief Secretary Long announced, early in September of this year, that the treasury had agreed to provide additional funds amounting to \$10,000,000 before the end of the year, together with such an amount of stock during the year 1906 as will produce \$50,000,000 cash, to facilitate the operations of the act and to remedy



ONE OF THE FEW REMAINING BITS OF WOODLAND IN IRELAND.

the stoppage of sales of land through lack of funds. It is unofficially announced that about one-half the land of Ireland is now absolutely out of the hands of the landlords, and is owned in fee simple by the people who live upon and till the land.

In selling their land to their tenants for the cash advanced for them by the government, the landlords generally demand that amount which the land would produce in rent in twenty-two and one-half years. Some wish more, some less, than this. The average purchase of the tenant is his stone dwelling, sometimes an outbuilding, and from six to twenty acres of land. The price paid, based on the rent value, varies from \$20 to \$60 an acre.

A FARMER'S EXPERIENCE UNDER THE LAW.

An actual case of purchase is as follows: A small farmer lived upon a tract of $16\frac{1}{2}$ acres of land in County Tipperary, a good agricultural section. For some years past he had been paying to the landlord an annual rent of £6 12s., or about \$33. He wished to purchase the land, and it was offered to him by the landlord for £150, or about \$750. He made the necessary application to the authorities, borrowed the money from the government, and paid the landlord for the place, gaining from him a deed in fee simple. The government retained what might be termed a mortgage upon the place, which is to be released at the expiration of

forty yearly payments of £4 4s., or about \$21. In forty years from 1904 the purchaser will have paid to the government about \$840 for his farm. He began also to pay taxes upon the place as soon as it was listed in his name. His first year's taxes amounted to 26s., or about \$6.50. This amount may be increased or diminished according to the valuation put upon the property and the rate of taxation adopted from year to year.

HOW AMERICAN MONEY GOES TO PAY FOR IRISH LAND.

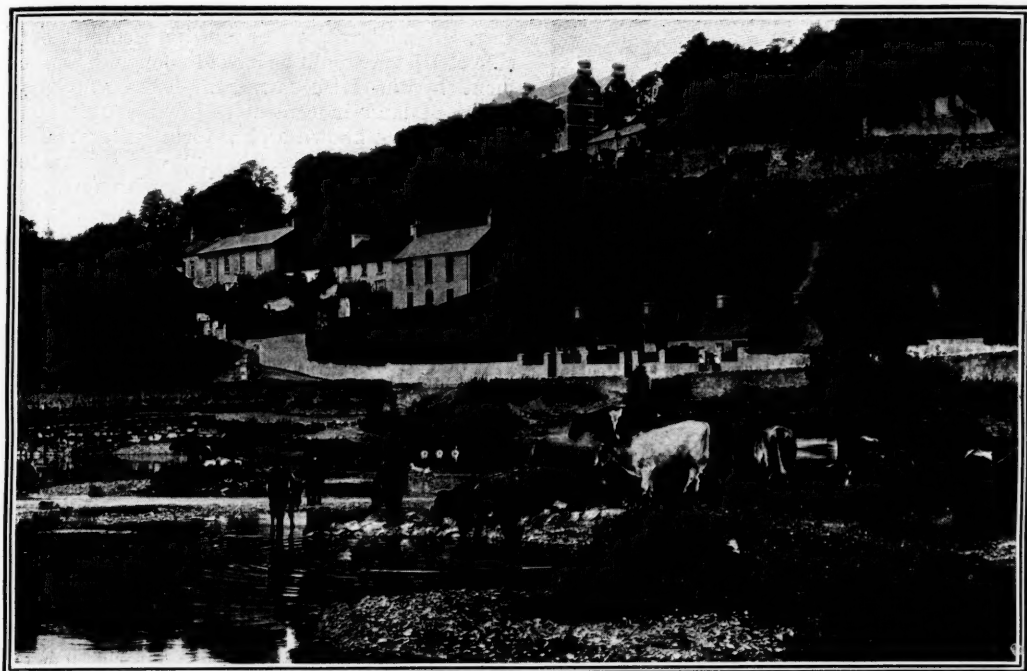
This, in brief, is an account of the change that is taking place in all parts of Ireland at the present time. The farmer or tenant who buys generally does so with a view of paying his yearly amounts with money sent to him from children or relatives who have emigrated to America. It would be impossible to estimate the amount of money that is sent to Ireland every year from the United States. Private inquiry sometimes reveals the fact that every cent of the rent and taxes paid by certain villages and sections of counties was paid by American Irish.

The Earl of Dunraven, president of the Irish Reform Association, in a recent pamphlet which was strewn broadcast through Ireland, declares that out of 500,000 holdings in rural Ireland fully 200,000 might be classed as uneconomic, or incapable *per se* of maintaining a family. Unless the purchaser has some other means of



A VIEW TAKEN FROM THE TOP OF THE ROCK OF CASHEL, COUNTY TIPPERARY.

(Looking westward, right through the "Golden Vale," and on into County Limerick. To the right is the ruins of "Hoar's Abbey.")



A PROSPEROUS SCENE IN THE SUBURBS OF CORK.

(Showing the splendid results of intensive cultivation where followed. The cultivation of strawberries and early vegetables for the English market would bring enormous returns.)

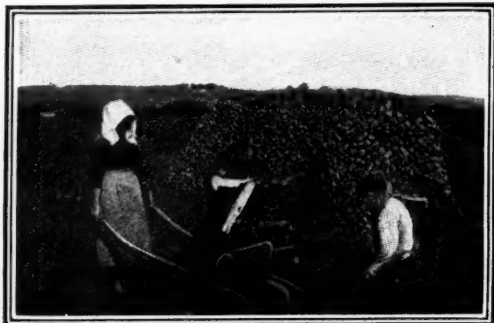
support besides the proceeds of the land, he will not be able to pay for his property or live except in the most abject poverty. Starvation, then, in the case of purchasers of such property is kept off by the money which is sent from America.

DAIRYING AND STOCK-RAISING.

Of the 300,000 economic holdings, the vast majority are self-sustaining, not from tillage, but from dairying and stock-raising. Dairying has within the past five years received an impetus through the efforts at coöperation made by the Board of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, which was created in 1899. This board has provided instruction for the people in dairying in many schools, and has established creameries throughout Ireland, with expensive machinery for stripping butter from milk fresh from the cow. To these creameries dairymen haul their milk and receive credit for the butter-producing value of each pint. The establishment of these creameries, insuring cleanliness and a regular supply, has succeeded in opening up a fresh market for Irish butter in England, and has stimulated dairying in large parts of Ireland. The coöperative plan is yet in its infancy, and has to prove what it will accomplish if universally patronized.

Stock-breeding among the small farmers is increasing with the decline of tillage. Most writers upon the subject look with disfavor upon the change. It is generally considered to be a branch of industry fraught with considerable danger to the small capitalist. In Ireland especially cattle and sheep raising is a speculation rather than an investment, and, like all species of gambling, is attended with great risk to the man of small capital. The depressing outlook of the rural life of England and Scotland, so much commented upon, is brought about by the passing of the land from under the plow and its being given over to stock-raising. In these countries it is said that men decay as the kine increase. In Ireland, conditions are still worse. Those who are forced to leave the Irish farms for lack of work do not flock to native towns and cities to engage in manufacturing or mercantile pursuits, as they do in England and Scotland, but emigrate to America, leaving a few of the old and infirm and unfit to engage in the "lotus-eating occupation of opening and shutting gates" for the cattle and sheep to pass through.

Rural Ireland has gained largely in the number of its cattle and sheep even within the past five years, but it has lost to an even larger de-



CUTTING AND HAULING PEAT IN COUNTY GALWAY.

(About the only occupation of many people in Ireland. This peat sells for two shillings a cart-load.)

gree in the activities and productiveness of its people in all other lines on account of the stagnation in agriculture due to this rush toward pasturage. It is a well-known truth that the decline of tillage in any country, whatever be the cause, involves an enormous waste of national resources. In Ireland the worst possible results have come from such a condition.

FARMING METHODS AND RESULTS.

The Irish tenant, or independent farmer, of the present time generally turns out the larger part of his land in permanent pasture. Upon this he grazes from two to four cows, three or four calves, sometimes a small flock of sheep, raises a half-dozen pigs, and sometimes keeps a horse or a donkey. Hardly half of the ordinary Irish small farmers keep a horse. The small cultivation which the land gets is done with the spade.

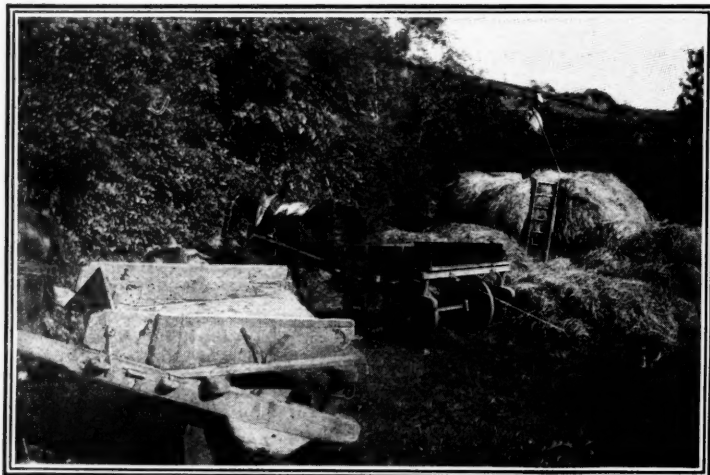
All farm work is done in the most primitive way. A modern plow or mowing-machine, outside of Ulster, would be looked upon with amazement by the Irish farmers. There are large tracts of land in central and western Ireland that have not known a plow for a century. The land is down permanently in grass, and an occasional top-dressing of the soil with fertilizer in the spring is practically all the attention which is paid it.

In counties Clare and Tipperary, in south central Ireland, there is a tract of remarkably fertile land known as the "Golden Vale of Tipperary." Much of this land is still worked intensively, and splendid yields result. Here, as well as in County Cork, and Meath in the east, and the Ulster counties of Antrim and Down, barley is raised in quantities, as well as oats, potatoes, and other root crops. The farmer in these sections, as in other sections where the soil is tilled, can get labor at from fifteen to twenty pence a day, sometimes much less, though often he has to board his hands. These farm hands are expected to do the hardest kind of spade work, and in summer their workdays are exceedingly long. In Kerry and Galway a good stout farm-boy is often employed for £10 (\$50) and board a year. However, when these farm-boys ever get together enough money to take them to America they lose no time in shaking the Irish dust from their feet once and for all.

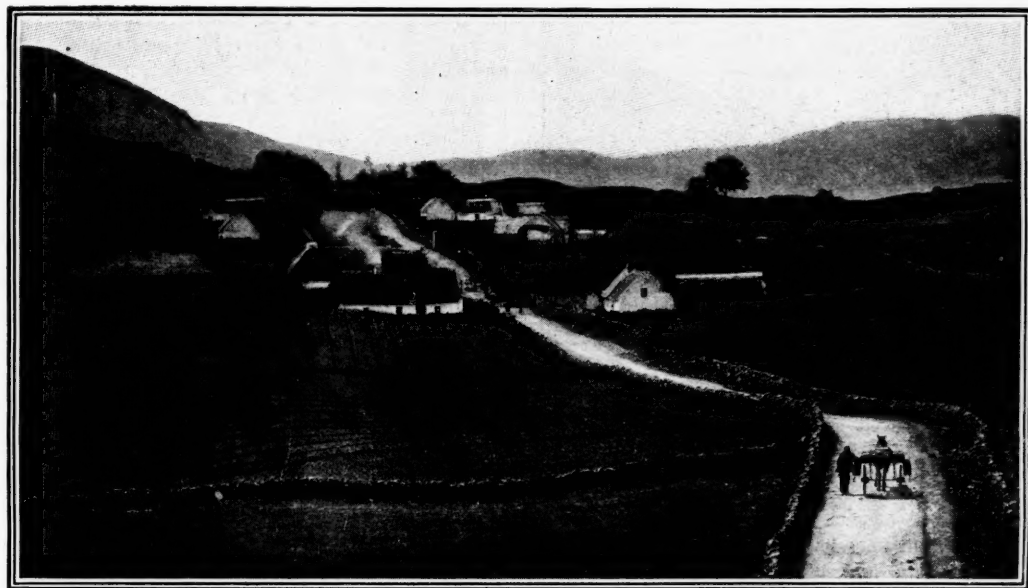
A RICH SOIL AND VARIED CROPS.

In the greater part of Ireland the soil is black and rich,—far richer than the average American soil. Nowhere in the world does grass grow more luxuriantly, and nowhere is the land so little encumbered with weeds, briars, and undergrowth. Much of the country is rocky, but long cultivation has put the loose stones into walls and fences, while many have been crushed in making the Irish roads, which to-day are as fine as any in the world.

Considering the natural fertility of the Irish soil, and its adaptability to intensive cultivation, the Irish crops for the past few years have not been encouragingly large. In 1903, the total wheat crop amounted to 1,175,000 bushels. This might be compared with the wheat crop of some of the States of the



HAYMAKING IN IRELAND, SHOWING THE PRIMITIVE METHODS STILL USED.



A RURAL VILLAGE IN COUNTY MAYO.

(The fields are all planted in potatoes in beds three feet wide, as is the Irish custom. Through the village passes a typical Irish roadway.)

Union, seventeen of which produced more than ten million bushels each, and six more than thirty millions. Ireland produced 5,835,644 bushels of barley and bere, crops particularly well suited to the soil and climate. Five States together produced twenty times this amount, and Minnesota produced 32,000,000 bushels of barley alone. The oat crop of Ireland is one of its staples. In 1903 this amounted to 48,259,000 bushels. Illinois produced 117,000,000 bushels, and the crop of Iowa was 122,323,000 bushels.

The Irish climate, always cool and moist, favors the production of all kinds of root crops. Turnips, swedes, mangolds, cabbage, and potatoes were formerly grown in enormous quantities. Indeed, since its introduction into the island by Sir Walter Raleigh, late in the sixteenth century, the potato had grown by the middle of the last century to be the chief staple of Ireland. In many parts of the island it was both meat and bread for the people. Its cultivation superseded that of wheat and other cereals, and after it had come into universal use, fewer pigs were raised and less meat consumed than before. Between 1800 and 1845 it might be said that fully one-half of the Irish people were wholly dependent upon the potato for support.

The potato crop of Ireland is still considered to be its largest production. In 1903 this amounted to about 77,000,000 bushels. The crop for the

United States amounted to 332,830,000 bushels, of which New York State produced 41,000,000 bushels, with Maine, Iowa, Pennsylvania, and Michigan as close seconds. With all its rush toward pasturage, the total hay output of Ireland in 1903, sown grass and permanent grass, was but 5,000,000 tons. New York State produced 7,000,000 tons, while Iowa, Ohio, Missouri, and many other States produced almost as much.



AN IRISH FARMYARD.

(Showing primitive implements and vehicles. The horse is hitched to a "low-back car." Many of the vehicle wheels are solid blocks of wood.)



A TYPICAL MARKET CART.

(In which most of the Irish rural folk do all their traveling.)

These staple crops are practically all that Ireland must fall back upon for a livelihood. The climate is too severe for Indian corn, tobacco, rice, cotton, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, or the thousand and one small crops that help to make the American farmers independent.*

OTHER RESOURCES THAN AGRICULTURE.

The farmers and others in rural Ireland might be helped by mining, milling, timbering, and other such pursuits, but none of these things is done there. The country is said to contain iron, silver, gold, lead, and copper, but not an ounce of these metals has been produced in fifty years. The coal beds are very small, and the output is inconsiderable. The Irish rivers might furnish enormous power for manufacturing if they were properly harnessed, but this has never been done. There are not even grist or flouring mills, and the very nature of the case excludes saw and wood-working mills.

For fuel, the rural people depend upon the bogs, which are generally filled with peat or turf. In many cases the country Irish earn an honest penny by cutting turf and marketing it in the neighboring towns and villages. This

*The late autumn prices of produce in the markets of north Ireland are about as follows: Potatoes, 2s. for the lowest grade to 3s. 5d. per cwt. for the "skerries," or the best grade. Hay, meadow, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 9d. per cwt.; upland, 2s. 9d. to 3s. 2d. Wheat sells at from 7s. to 7s. 6d. per cwt., or about \$1.00 to \$1.10 a bushel. Oats are quoted in the northern markets at 5s. 6d. per cwt., or about 45 cents a bushel. Chickens sell in these markets at from 3s. to 4s. 6d. a pair, and ducks bring 1s. to 1s. 6d. apiece. Eggs in November and December bring from 10d. to 15d. a dozen. Turnips sell at 6d. and 8d. per cwt., and butter is quoted anywhere from 8½d. to 12d. per pound. The prices which are actually paid the farmers for these products are from 10 to 25 per cent. less than these prices, which obtain throughout the northern counties. In the counties of the south and west, the prices are from 15 to 30 per cent. lower in most of the markets. In some remote rural sections, the small farmers get from the local merchants whatever they choose to pay them for their produce, —sometimes more, sometimes less, than the market prices.

peculiar product is cut from the bogs in summer, is stacked up and dried for several months, and is then hauled in donkey-carts to fairs and markets, where it is sold for two shillings a load. Turf makes a slow, smoldering fire which is perfectly agreeable to the Irish people.

Traveling in rural Ireland is often done afoot. Men and women do not mind walking five or ten miles to a country fair or to mass in a village church. Those who possess horses or donkeys often travel in the "low-back car," which is almost as popular a vehicle as it was a hundred years ago. The donkeys are made to do heroic service. The jaunting-car, in which passengers sit back to back, with their feet over the wheels, is the public vehicle of Ireland, and is used in every part of the island. There is to-day no such thing as the farm wagon as it is known in the United States; and, outside of the cities, buggies, traps, and carriages are unknown.

It was in the period of Ireland's growth and comparative prosperity that many of the fine roads of the island were permanently constructed of the stones which were dug from the fields and crushed; and the substantial stone walls and lofty picturesque bridges, which lend such charm



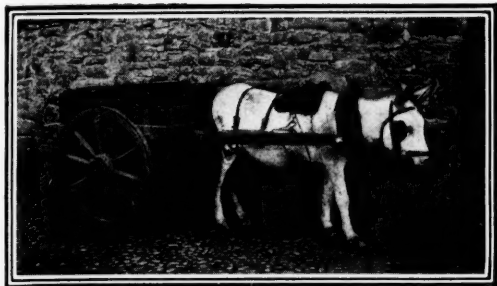
A JAUNTING-CAR.

(The high-grade vehicle of travel in Ireland to-day, just as it was fifty years ago.)

to modern Irish landscapes, were erected for the benefit of a busy people.

EFFORTS TO REVIVE AND STIMULATE PROSPERITY.

The condition of stagnation in rural life has within the past two or three years brought to life many schemes for the reawakening of the old island to a conformity with modern progress in living. The Gaelic League was organized by the Irish people a few years ago for the purpose of reviving the old Irish, or Gaelic, tongue, as well as to create a new national and racial pride



A DONKEY-CAR.

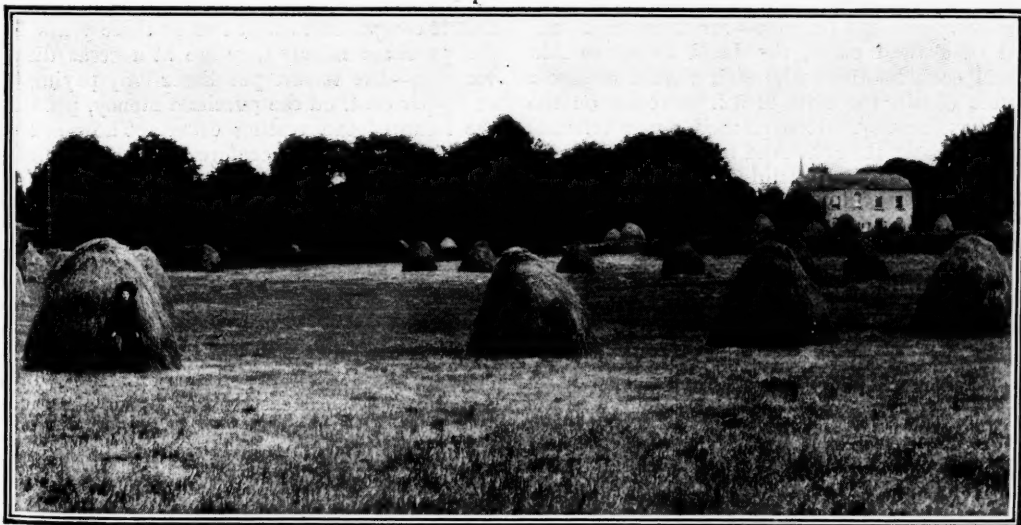
(One of the chief means of travel in Ireland to-day.)

and stimulate industry. In many of the Irish schools the young people are engaged in learning this harsh, peculiar language of their ancestors. The Irish claim that this course will serve to give back to the Irish the dreams in which Irish nature revels and on which Irish nature thrives. Many practical people are contending strenuously that a revival of Irish sentiment with a useless language will only serve to separate Ireland still further from all that is practical and progressive. Isolation, they say, with too much sentiment, has been to a large extent the cause of Ireland's undoing. However, the Gaelic League is a most flourishing organization, and is established in every section of the island. It yet remains to be seen what it will accomplish.

The various efforts of individuals and of government boards to stimulate Irish agriculture, such as those put forth by the Irish Board of Agriculture, Sir Horace Plunkett, and Lord Dunraven, have met with a fair measure of success. The establishment of creameries, as already mentioned, is but one of the innovations made by these agencies. Scotch fishermen, with boats, have been employed to teach the Irish of the west coast profitable methods of fishing, technical schools have been founded in conjunction with other schools in various parts of the country, and small markets have been established for the sale of Irish home products. Hand-weaving, spinning, knitting, embroidering, shirt-making, lace-making, and crocheting have been developed somewhat within the past few years, especially in the mountain regions, in order to give the women of the homes a chance to help keep away poverty.

With all the efforts that are being put forth to restore Ireland to its rightful agricultural and industrial position, the people are leaving the country in thousands, the farms are becoming abandoned, work for those who remain is becoming scarcer every day, and the outlook for some radical change for the better is not encouraging.

Where or how it is to end no one of those who are apparently in a position to know seems to be able at this time to advance a satisfactory opinion.



A RICH FARM IN SOUTH IRELAND, SHOWING A RURAL HOME OF THE FIRST CLASS.

THE WORKINGS OF THE IRISH LAND LAW.

BY THOMAS W. RUSSELL, M.P.

[Mr. Russell, although a Unionist and a bitter opponent of the Nationalist party in Ireland, is the most prominent advocate of compulsory land purchase and has been deeply interested in the enactment and operation of the Land Act. In the present article he points out certain defects in that measure.—THE EDITOR.]

THE Irish Land Purchase Act of 1903 was in every respect epoch-making. It was preceded by, and founded upon, the report of a conference held between the representatives of landlord and tenant in Dublin. The Landlords' Convention, the official representative of the landlord party, held aloof and refused to join in the conference. Typical landlords, such as the Duke of Abercorn, Lord Barrymore, and Colonel Saunderson, refused to serve, ridiculing the project as absurd and quixotic. Lord Dunraven led a saner section of landlords, with the result that, after a session of five days, the conference agreed to a report, upon which the government acted. The official landlords, seeing the reasonableness of the findings and recognizing their own folly, succumbed at once, and fell in with the general tendency for settlement. Substantially, the Act of 1903 accepted the principle of universal sale of the landlord's interest to the occupier. It ignored legal compulsion. But it accepted what was finely called the principle of compulsion by inducement. It placed the sum of £100,000,000 (\$500,000,000) at the disposal of landlord and tenant for the purposes of the act. It went further,—for it enacted that out of a fund called the Land Purchase Aid Fund each landlord who sold should receive a bonus (Latin for gift) of 12 per cent. on the purchase money. It appointed a new tribunal to administer the act. And to this tribunal were given powers of re-settling congested districts by the purchase of grass lands, the enlargement of uneconomic holdings, and the restoration of certain evicted tenants where possible. It was an act sufficient of itself to make and secure the reputation of any statesman. Already in eighteen months since it came into operation land value for £20,000,000 (\$100,000,000) has been sold under it. Properly and reasonably administered, it contains all the elements of a settlement of the problem. Let us see where and how it has broken down.

WHERE THE LAW HAS MISSED THE MARK.

First: There has been a serious hitch in the finance of the bill. One hundred million pounds sterling was the estimate of the money required to carry the operation of transferring the land

from owner to occupier through. But an understanding was arrived at during the passage of the bill through committee that for the first three years the outlay should not exceed five millions in each year. The state of the money market was assigned as the chief reason for the limitation. But, beyond all doubt, the result has been a serious hitch and great disappointment. Nobody perhaps could have quite foreseen the rush to sell. At the present moment agreements have been signed for sale and purchase between landlord and tenant representing £20,000,000. The estates commissioners have received, roughly speaking, £11,000,000 from the treasury. They have paid out to vendors of land in or about £5,000,000. And another sum approaching £5,000,000 has been paid over in the Bank of Ireland to the credit of estates,—these estates awaiting proof of title. To meet claims of £10,000,000, therefore, the commissioners have £1,000,000 on hand,—and the prospect of a further loan of \$5,000,000 this November. But it must be remembered that the delay thus caused has exercised a most regrettable influence upon purchase. Landlords very naturally say that if compelled to wait two or three years for the purchase money they are at a great disadvantage,—the tenant purchaser only paying 3½ or 3¾ per cent. on the purchase money, pending the issue of the vesting order. The work of agreeing as to sale, therefore, has been seriously impeded where it has not been brought to a standstill by reason of this hitch. On the other hand, however, it must be admitted that the raising of even £5,000,000 has been a serious matter for Ireland. A selling landlord is paid in cash. But while he gets £100 in sovereigns, the discount, amounting probably to the difference between £87 and £100, has to be paid out of the Irish Equivalent Grant, an arrangement which keeps the British treasury safe, but is of serious import to Ireland as a whole. This is one of the first things which have to be set right. Some plan must be devised by which the act can have free and full scope. This and other things being done, there is no reason why ten years should not see the Irish land problem solved.

Second: The act has all but completely broken down in the west. Here, where its healing

influence was most needed, its failure has been most marked. And for this breakdown the cupidity of the Irish landlord is wholly to blame. What the act contemplated in this respect is quite clear. It was quite impossible to apply the same rule to Connaught and to other similar areas as to Ulster, Leinster, and Munster. In the west the holdings are small and hopelessly uneconomic in their character. Parliament felt, and rightly so, that to make the occupier of a five-acre bog holding an owner was to do him no good. Such a feat in statesmanship merely freed the western landlord from a risky security and transferred the risk to the state. It was, therefore, enacted that the large grass holdings which abound in that region,—and which are held by graziers on a tenure of eleven months, the object of the term being to avoid the creation of a tenancy,—should be bought and wherever possible should be distributed among the small holders, thus rendering a decent living possible. And in several cases this has been successfully done by the congested districts board, with the very best results. It was a big, bold thing to attempt. But it was manifestly the right policy. And Mr. Wyndham in passing the act justly placed it in front,—as, perhaps, the main object of his policy.

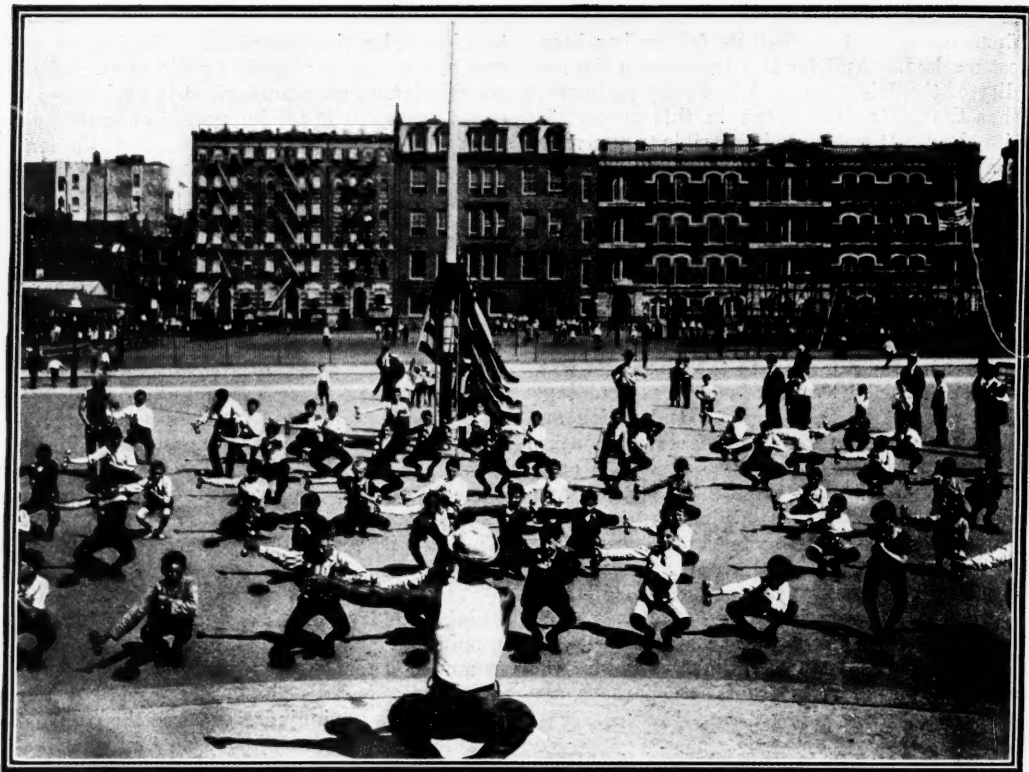
CAUSE OF FAILURE IN THE WESTERN COUNTIES.

In considering the breakdown of the act at this point it is necessary to look at the terms upon which it was passed. The landlords as a whole professed at the land conference and in Parliament their entire willingness to sell, provided they received a price equivalent when securely invested to their second-term net income. To enable this to be done the bonus of £12,000,000 was sanctioned by Parliament. The whole thing was a bargain—a clear case of contract. And what the western landlords have been guilty of is a simple breach of faith. They are quite ready to sell the bog holdings, the barren mountain tracts out of which a decent living cannot be had, demanding for this wretched land in many cases more than is being asked in Antrim and Down for the best land in these counties. But the grass ranches they refuse to part with. And so the whole plan of the act,—the whole scheme for the re-settling of the land, and raising the station of the small holder,—has been brought to naught. In this connection another difficulty has arisen. When the western sections of the act were being passed, Mr. Wyndham,—who was in grim earnest about these poor people,—provided for the sale of congested estates to the estates commissioners or to the congested districts board. Special inducements were given

to sales under these sections. The cost of sale was borne almost entirely by the state, and the commissioners were authorized in such cases to spend money upon the improvement of the holdings. The policy was excellent. But the landlords have ruined it. They quickly discovered that if they sold to the estates commissioners the land would be inspected by an expert valuer, and its price would depend upon its value. This was not their idea of how things should be done. They preferred to sell to the tenant direct, against whom they could use the screw of arrears of rent, and from whom they could exact a higher price. Hardly a case of sale to the estates commissioners has taken place under these well-meant sections. And for the reasons stated.

The Irish members were under no illusions while the act was being passed. We warned Mr. Wyndham, and we cautioned Parliament, that a breakdown was imminent at this point. The fact is, compulsory powers of purchase in all such cases ought to have been frankly given. But to mention the word compulsion to the then chief secretary was to send him into a fury. He would not hear of it. It was the agitation for compulsion that had produced the land bill. But the landlords had bound Mr. Wyndham to resist even its beginnings. And so the right honorable gentleman had his way. And what is the result? The big well-to-do farmers of Kildare,—the men whose ancestors were brought by the Duke of Leinster from Scotland after the famine,—have all bought their land under the act, and the Leinster estate has ceased to exist as such, something like half a million pounds being paid for it, including bonus. But the wretched holders of small bog holdings in the west are still left in their misery, and even where there is a chance, as there was at Cloonka, in County Galway, the other day, of relieving a small number of these men, Lord Ashtown stepped in and bought the grass land over their heads. This is the most serious point of failure. With the west unsettled nothing is settled. It is here where trouble has always been born. It is here that land acts have always had their origin. It is well to make an end of landlordism anywhere. Here its fell influence is most severely felt. Here the load must be lifted. In a word, both the estates commissioners and the congested districts board must have compulsory powers against men who persist in a whole province being steeped in misery, with the means of relief at hand.

But making every allowance for shortcomings, nothing can be surer than this,—that the act, properly administered by officials and sensibly treated by the people, has all the elements of a final settlement of Ireland's agrarian problem.



A CLASS OF BOYS AT DUMB-BELL DRILL IN HAMILTON FISH PARK, NEW YORK CITY.

THE PLAYGROUND CITY.

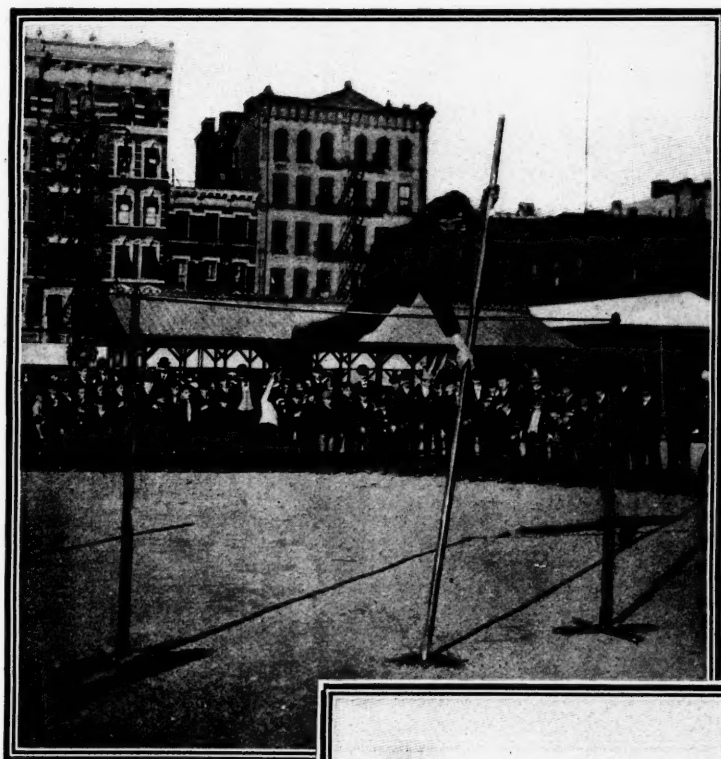
BY G. W. HARRIS.

ONLY within very recent years have the largest and most congested of our American cities come to realize that wholesome outdoor recreation is a valuable aid toward the making of good citizens. Not all of those aspiring to be counted of the first class have yet realized that fact, and perhaps none has come fully to appreciate just how valuable such aid is. But in one or two cities the era of tentative experimentation has been fairly passed, and the light of experience is spreading. Possibly some account of the results thus far observed in one city may help its spread still further.

New York City has, scattered through its five boroughs, 157 parks, large and small, with a total area of 7,223 acres, which is carried on the books of the Tax Department (though it is, of course, exempt from taxation) at a total valuation of \$375,000,000. And the men who administer this vast estate, the officers of the Depart-

ment of Parks, assert that no other city in the world does so much as New York to see that its public parks are enjoyed by its people, so much to make its breathing-spots attractive and inviting. Especially noteworthy in this direction have been the efforts of the municipal government in recent years to foster in the parks outdoor sports and recreation of practically all kinds.

As long ago as 1860 schoolboys under sixteen were permitted to play baseball in Central Park on a single diamond laid out specially for them, and about twenty years ago lawn tennis began to be played on the spacious meadows of that park. But it is only within the last decade that the old idea of a public park as simply an inclosed tree and shrubbery garden, with handsome lawns protected by plenty of "Keep off the Grass" signs, has given place to the new idea that a great and crowded city's parks should be the playgrounds of its children of all ages; that



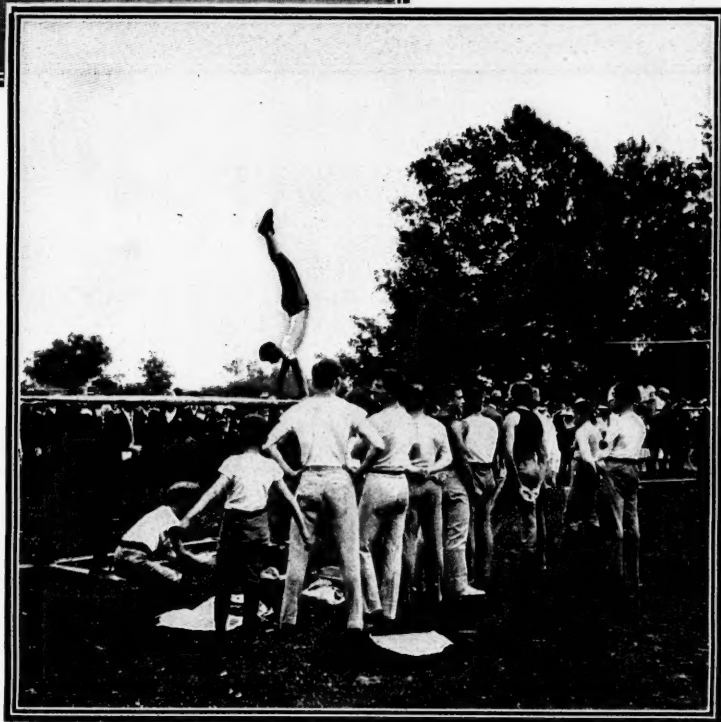
POLE-VAULTING IN THE ATHLETIC FIELD OF HAMILTON FISH PARK.

to be enjoyed of the people the parks should be used by the people. To-day there is scarcely any outdoor sport indulged in by Americans that is not encouraged in the parks of New York City. Baseball, football, basket-ball, tennis, golf, cricket, croquet, archery, lacrosse, polo, rowing, swimming, running, skating, driving, athletics, are all fostered in the larger parks, and there can be no doubt that the good health of many thousands of the city's people is enhanced thereby.

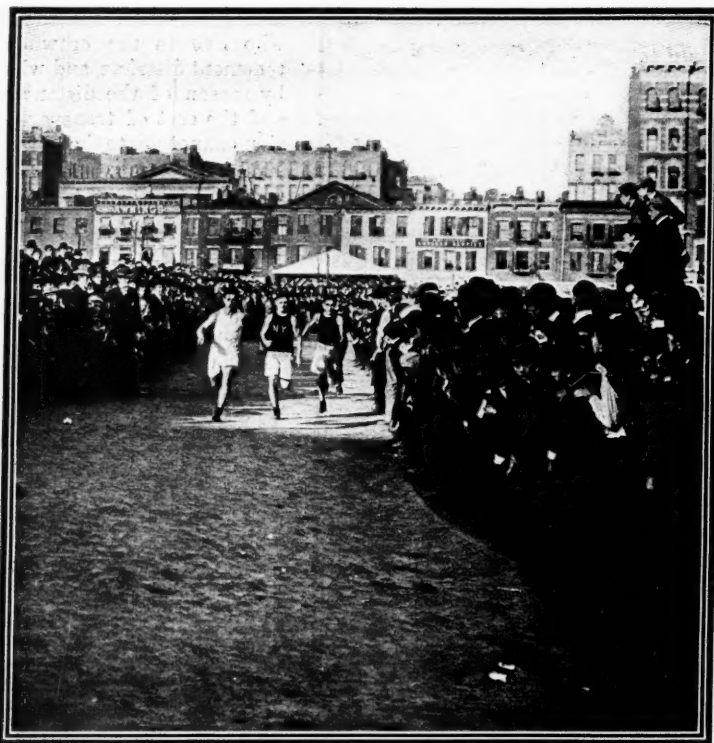
FRESH AIR FOR THE TENEMENT CHILDREN.

But the children and youth, especially, most in need of fresh air and whole-

some recreation are those who live in the crowded tenement districts, and who by reason of the distances and the cost of transportation cannot get to the larger parks, where all this array of sports and games is provided for. Yet they have rightfully as much claim on the city as the children of the well-to-do. Indeed, there are not wanting people who hold that the city is the more bounden to those among its children whose natural opportunities are the smallest. And New York has at last begun to recognize its duty to that class. Even more remarkable than the growth of popular interest in sports in the larger parks has been the development in the last three or four years



INSTRUCTING A CLASS ON THE PARALLEL BARS IN THE OPEN-AIR GYMNASIUM OF PELHAM BAY PARK.



A RACE ON THE RUNNING-TRACK OF HAMILTON FISH PARK.

of scientifically arranged and conducted playgrounds for the poor children of the tenement-house neighborhoods in certain of the smaller parks of the city. Here the municipality fosters games and sports of various kinds by providing not only the grounds, with suitable fixtures and equipment, but also the individual implements necessary, such as balls of all kinds, bats, dumbbells, Indian clubs, and even tennis racquets; and, furthermore, it employs a corps of instructors to teach the children how to play the various games and how to get the most good out of their exercises.

GYMNASTICS IN THE CITY PARKS.

There are eleven of these specially equipped playgrounds now in operation in Manhattan Borough, and four in Brooklyn, besides the two big outdoor gymnasias and athletic fields in Macomb's Dam Park, and Pelham Bay Park in the Bronx. They are doing a splendid work in giving these poor children good physical constitutions and training, in reclaiming them from evil street influences, in breaking up the fighting "gang" idea, and in starting them on the road to good American citizenship. So thoroughly convinced

of this is the city government that the administration recently appropriated \$1,300,000 for additional small playgrounds and athletic fields.

The first playground of the sort in New York City was opened about eight years ago in William H. Seward Park, at Canal and Jefferson streets, by the Outdoor Recreation League. This soon demonstrated its usefulness and success, but five years passed before the idea was adopted by the city. The first municipal playground was instituted in 1902, also in William H. Seward Park. Others followed in Tompkins Square, Hamilton Fish Park (at Houston and Willett streets), East River Park (the river front from Eighty-fourth to Eighty-ninth Street), John Jay Park (at the East River and Seventy-sixth Street), a small park at Seventeenth Street and the East River, Corlears

Hook Park, Hudson Park, Thomas Jefferson Park (between One Hundred and Eleventh and One Hundred and Fourteenth streets, First Avenue and the Harlem River), De Witt Clinton Park (Fifty-second to Fifty-fourth Street and the North River), and St. Gabriel's Park (between Thirty-fifth and Thirty-sixth streets, First and Second avenues).

East River, Seventeenth Street, and Hudson parks contain only kindergarten playgrounds for girls and small children. Each of the others has a large open-air gymnasium and athletic field for boys, and a separate playground for girls, with kindergarten equipment. Hamilton Fish Park contains also two indoor gymnasias, one for boys and one for girls, which are used throughout the winter. In Tompkins Square is, according to the director, the best park playground in the world. It is situated in the heart of the park, with the shade of the trees on the playground. The outdoor gymnasium, which is typical for all these playgrounds, contains horizontal bars, two parallel bars, two horses (the German side-horse), two bucks, inclined and horizontal ladders, flying and traveling rings, a running-track, a jumping-ground,—in short, a

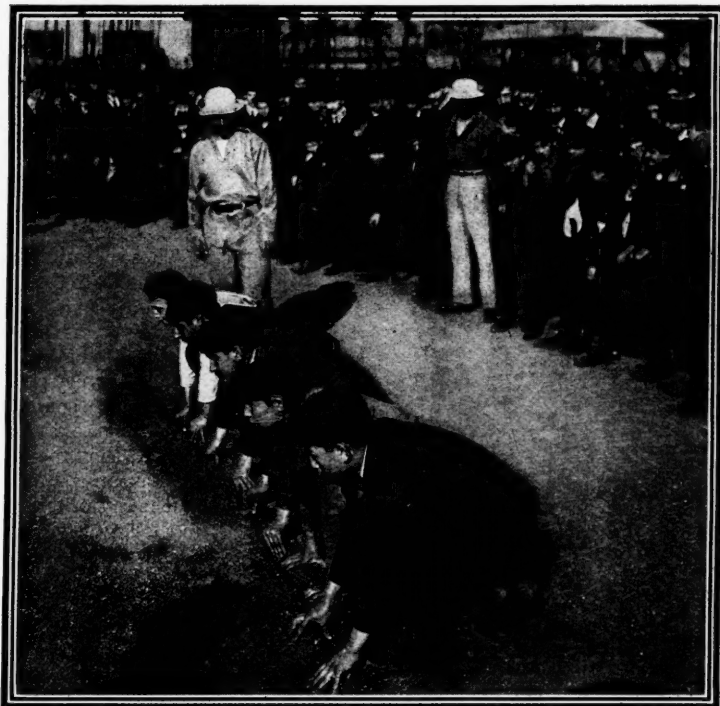
complete athletic field, together with tennis and basket-ball courts.

WHOLESOME ATHLETIC SPORTS.

In each of these playground parks there have been organized baseball teams, basket-ball teams, tennis teams, and track teams, and among them there is keen competition. Schedules are arranged and carried out regularly. The teams in one park challenge those of the other parks and the school and settlement-house teams. The boys have organized clubs of their own, and the pride they take in them is surprising. They buy their own uniforms, and they take good care of the park property, too, realizing that it is their property, and that if it is stolen or damaged they are injured just that much. The aim of the instructors is to devote as much time as possible to the general mass on the playground, and yet develop teams and clubs. The enthusiasm among the boys for these clubs has grown rapidly, and there is now displayed a considerable park spirit.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE "GANG."

The work of teaching the children how to use the gymnasium apparatus properly and how to play the various games in all these parks is under the supervision of Mr. David I. Kelly, director of city playgrounds, who, in the three years that he has been in charge, has accomplished a remarkable work among the poor children, of the lower East Side especially, and succeeded astonishingly well in bringing order out of chaos. When the work was first started on the lower East Side the park would be fairly swamped by a horde of rough youngsters who had never had any freedom without lawlessness, and who did not know what to make of it. They wanted to smash everything to pieces. They couldn't keep their hands off. They had no regard for rules or regulations of any kind. Many, if not most, of the older boys wanted to do nothing but fight. They had been brought up in the street,—they had never had any other place to



"READY! SET!" AT THE WILLIAM H. SEWARD PARK.
(Getting in position for a race.)

play. Their ideas of fun were derived from the dime novel and similar trash, and consisted in robbing push-cart men and committing other petty depredations,—not because they were inherently bad and wanted to rob, primarily, but because that was their idea of sport. It was in some such way that the "gang" developed,—that worst evil of the crowded tenement districts, which has made more criminals, perhaps, than any other one agency,—and many boys, simply from lack of proper supervision and room to work off their surplus energies, became criminals. It was a difficult task at first to develop order and respect for authority, truth, and fair play among such a lawless class; but gradually the boys came to see that the new ideals were better than the old ones, and that it was to their interest to play according to the rules.

Soon there sprang up a strong rivalry to "make the team," and then to win contests from the teams of the other parks. To-day the youngsters who a few years ago would have spent their time on the street fighting, brawling, and robbing push-cart men go into the playground park and work like beavers at wholesome exercise to gain a place on some team, and incidentally the

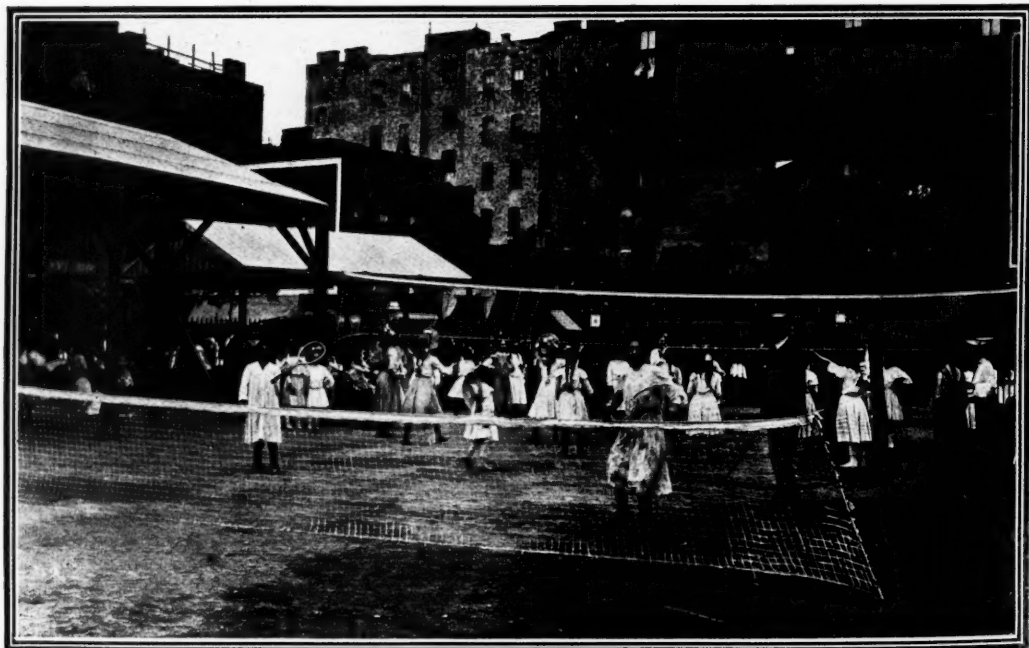


GIRL EXERCISING ON THE SWINGING ROPE-LADDER,
PELHAM BAY PARK.

respect of their fellows, their teachers, and the community. In the neighborhood of the playground parks the street "gang" has been completely broken up, and many of the boys who were the toughest specimens the instructors had to deal with when the playgrounds were first opened are to-day studying for the law, or medicine, or some other profession.

OUTDOOR EXERCISE FOR GIRLS.

These municipal playgrounds are of inestimable benefit to the girls of the poorer quarters also. A goodly space in the park is set apart for their use, and this is equipped with courts for tennis, basket-ball, tether-ball, and volley-ball (all of which are very popular games with the girls), with swings, or "scups," of various sizes, and with the maypole-like arrangement known as the giant stride; they receive instruction in light gymnastics, running, dumb-bell exercises, dancing games, and many others; and throughout the summer, in the hottest hours of the day, kindergarten and social occupation work are taught to all the girls from four to fifteen years of age. In each of the playgrounds there are sand-houses, building-blocks, and baby-swings for the smallest children. In Hamilton Fish Park there is a library and quiet game-room, where the girls spend many an enjoyable hour. Among the larger



LAWN-TENNIS AND VOLLEY-BALL GAMES AS PLAYED BY GIRLS IN THE WILLIAM H. SEWARD PARK.



A GROUP OF GIRLS PLAYING VOLLEY-BALL.

girls the playground is almost as popular in winter as in summer,—especially in snow-time, when there is all the fun of building toboggan slides, snow-houses, and snow men. In winter, also, numerous entertainments and parties are given in the playground, and these are so enjoyable that they are extremely popular.

A CITY GOVERNMENT IN MINIATURE.

But, inasmuch as the boys are the more capable of mischief, the great improvement wrought in their condition physically, mentally, and morally is of prime significance. It means not alone the breaking up of the "gang" idea, which is in itself a highly desirable thing, but it means also the making of good citizens, with an interest in the welfare of the city, out of perhaps the most unpromising material to be found anywhere within its confines.

Such good progress had been made in the older playgrounds, and the interest of the boys in seeing that they were kept in good condition was so evident, that last summer the director thought that the organization of a model city government in miniature would be an excellent thing to give the young athletes a greater interest and responsibility in the maintenance of

order, cleanliness, and good-fellowship in the park, and to teach them the duties of citizenship. The boys became enthusiastic over the idea at once. So, permission and a promise of coöperation being obtained from the president of the park board, a "Playground City" was instituted in Hamilton Fish Park. In July the boys held a convention and adopted a city charter, the salient parts of which are as follows:

In order to insure the furtherance of clean athletics and manly sports, and the development of good-fellowship among us, we, the boys of Hamilton Fish Park, hereby constitute ourselves the "Playground City," and adopt the following constitution:

The executive power shall be vested in a mayor, to be elected on August 15, and each year thereafter.

The legislative power shall be vested in one house, to be known as "Council."

The council of the Playground City shall consist of a president and various commissioners to be appointed by the mayor. Any frequenter of the playground shall be qualified to vote, and shall be eligible for election or appointment to office.

There shall be the following administrative departments in the Playground City: department of police, department of street-cleaning, department of athletics, department of gymnastics, department of games, and department of finance.

The head of the department of police shall be called

the commissioner of police. He shall have the power to appoint members of the police force, and it shall be the duty of the said members of the police force to coöperate with the employees of the department of parks in maintaining order in the Playground City. Citizens of the Playground City guilty of infractions of its laws shall be suspended from participation in the games and sports of the model community for terms to be decided by the athletic instructor of Hamilton Fish Park.

The head of the department of street-cleaning shall be known as the commissioner of street-cleaning. He shall have the power to appoint members of the street-cleaning force, whose duty it shall be to coöperate with the employees of the park department in removing paper and rubbish from the Playground City. The commissioner of street-cleaning shall be responsible for the clean and tidy appearance of the Playground City.

The head of the department of athletics shall be known as the commissioner of athletics. He shall have control of the athletic department of the Playground City, and shall make rules and regulations for the preservation of true sportsmanship and clean competition among the athletes of the Playground City.

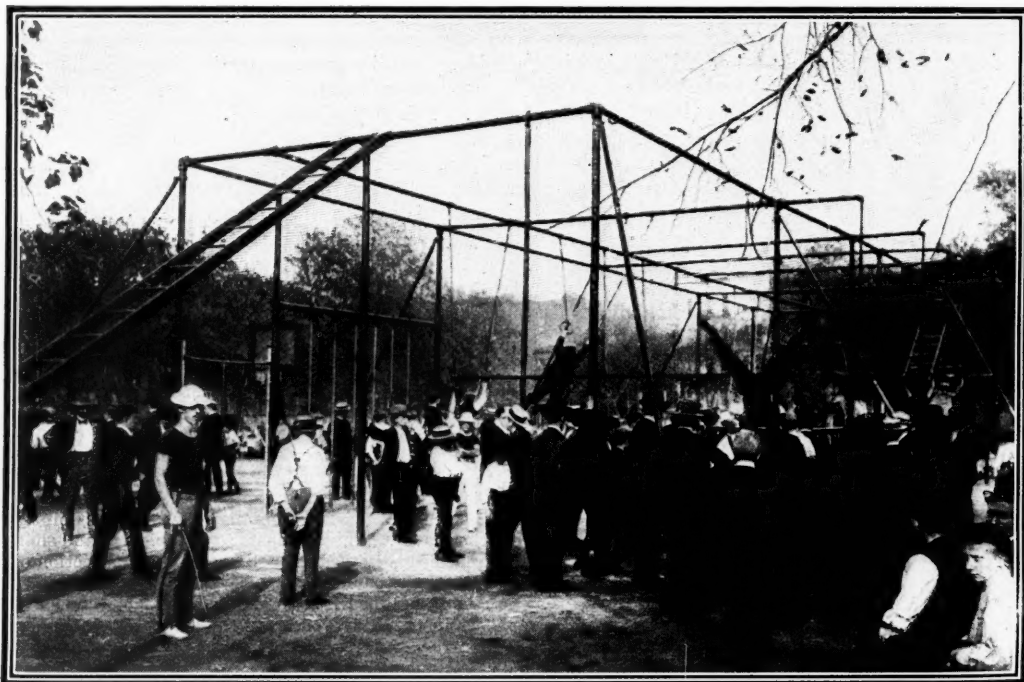
On August 15 an election was held ; and on September 1 the mayor, president of council, controller, and other officers were inducted into office, and the experiment of self-government in the city playground was under way. The mayor, Nathan Kase, a bright lad of seventeen, took oath to administer the rules of the Playground

City to the best of his ability and in strict accordance with its laws and charter. His inaugural speech surpassed the efforts of many an older official on like occasions. He said :

I feel that in assuming this office with which you have honored me it is right and fitting that I should make some general conception of the trust with which I have been encharged. It will be my earnest endeavor to administer the affairs of the Playground City for the benefit of all the citizens. It shall be my aim to create a fraternal spirit among the citizens of our city, and I will do all in my power for the furtherance of true sportsmanship and clean athletics. I will instruct the heads of departments as to my wishes, and will insist on the enforcement of the law. My aim will always be to make our park the model among playgrounds.

I ask those who supported my election to aid me in the task set before me, but, more than that, I ask the coöperation of every citizen of the playground. If when my administration comes to an end we can feel that we have not only developed in athletics or gymnastics, but that we have also become better in every way, and will be better fitted for citizenship of the great city of New York, I shall have the satisfaction of knowing that my earnest endeavor has not been in vain.

The youthful mayor has kept his word. His fellows have taken pride and interest in their work. And if the Playground City in Hamilton Fish Park continues to be as successful as it has been thus far, it will be copied in other parks.



THE OPEN-AIR GYMNASIUM IN TOMPKINS SQUARE PARK.

RUSSIA'S FIRST PARLIAMENT, THE DUMA.

BY W. T. STEAD.

THE Gonudarstvennaia Duma, of the Russian Empire is to assemble not later than the middle of January. The registration of electors was to have been completed by October 19. The general election is fixed for the beginning of December. As the ukase proclaiming the new law only appeared on August 19, it is evident the Russians have had very little time for creating the machinery necessary for the election of their first representative assembly. There is, indeed, considerable reason to believe that the time allotted is altogether too short to permit anything like a real appeal to the whole body of the nation. In England and in the United States, where the electoral machinery has long been in smooth working order, where every citizen is familiar with the principle and practice of representative government, a period of six weeks between the making up of the register and the final ballot would be regarded as all too brief. What then must it be where the whole of the machinery has to be improvised, where there are no organized political parties, and where the majority of the electors have to be made acquainted for the first time with the mysteries of the ballot-box?

In Great Britain, a population of fifty millions is packed into a couple of islands whose total superficial area is less than that of many a Russian government. In the United States, the elaborate network of rail and wire brings every elector every morning into touch with the latest phase of the problems which are reserved for his final decision. But in Russia we have a population of one hundred and thirty millions scattered over expanses so vast, where roads and communications are so primitive, that it is simply impossible to make the whole population aware of the details of the new law until long after the election will be over.

Add to this that the electoral period is precisely that between the Indian summer and the beginning of winter, when rural Russia becomes a vast quagmire and the widely scattered villages are like outposts cut off from communication with one another by mud. Add further that there is between those electoral units seldom a telegraph line, never a telephone; that there is no daily or even weekly postal delivery over great areas; that two-thirds of the electors can neither read nor write, and that most of those

who can read are too poor to subscribe even to a weekly newspaper, and the reader can begin dimly to realize the difficulties under which the first Russian election will take place.

POLITICAL OBSTACLES IN THE WAY.

The geographical difficulties are great, but the political obstacles are greater still. Up till the beginning of October, all political meetings of any kind were prohibited. In Russia, nothing is permitted that is not authorized, and the law authorizing the formation of electoral committees and the arrangement of electoral machinery was only published in St. Petersburg on October 4. Writing, as I am, on the Volga, within a hundred miles of the town of Varaloff, I am as yet in ignorance of the extent to which the iron-bound restrictions hitherto placed upon the political action of the new electors have been relaxed. The difficulties in the way of disseminating electoral literature are enormous. No printer can strike off any printed sheet, pamphlet, or any description of printed matter until it has been submitted to the local censor, who is sometimes a fool and usually a somewhat wooden-headed official much prone to magnify his office. It is quite incredible the delay thus occasioned. My address on "The Duma from an English Point of View," which the Emperor had read with approval, could not be printed for general circulation before it had been submitted to the censorship. The result is that almost all political literature is circulated by hectograph or mimeographed copies. The rigor of the censorship is carried to such lengths that sometimes the mimeographed copies of the Emperor's own speeches are seized as being in contravention of the laws of the censorship. The newspapers are all published under censorship. Under such conditions, it is obvious that the preparation and distribution of electoral literature throughout Russia in the few weeks remaining before the election are practically impossible.

In my appeal to the Russian Government to allow the four fundamental liberties as speedily as possible, I compared the Duma without these liberties to a horse without legs. As the homely metaphor helped somewhat to popularize the idea of the close interrelation between the Duma and the four fundamental liberties, it may possibly be of some interest.

It is evident that no horse can be of any use at all as a horse, or even deserves to be called a horse at all, if it has no legs, so it is not surprising that some replies declare that the Duma will be no real Duma, because at present the Duma is lying down and they cannot see its legs. Now, what are the legs of the Duma horse upon which the Duma must stand? It is clear it must have four legs, otherwise it can carry no burden, any more than if it were a dead horse whose legs were shot off in battle. The question is easily answered.

The first condition of all popular elections is that the electors should be free to come together to hear the views of candidates and to discuss the statements made at such meetings. The law, therefore, must allow, under clearly stated conditions, the liberty of meeting, publicly or privately, under cover or in the open air. Otherwise there can be no freedom of election, and therefore no real Duma. Liberty of public meeting, therefore, is the first leg of the Duma horse.

But everybody cannot go to public meetings. The information on political and electoral questions for the majority of men must always come to them through the press. Hence, while it is necessary that the press should be under the law, it is absolutely necessary that the press should be free. If newspapers break the law, let them be punished by the courts according to the law, after fair trial before judges. As a journalist myself, I utterly fail to understand how it is possible to subject the newspapers, which ought to be the eyes and ears of the Emperor, to the arbitrary control of policemen, who may have a direct interest in preventing the truth from reaching the throne. Therefore, I regard the freedom of the press under the law,—for freedom without law is not liberty, but license,—as the second leg of the Duma horse.

The third leg is liberty of association. You cannot conduct an election without committees. The government may, if it please, insist that no association or committee shall be formed without its knowledge. It is impossible to hold a free election unless the people are free to form whatever associations they please for lawful purposes without having to ask the consent of the police. This, at least from the English point of view, appears to be elementary common sense.

The fourth leg of the Duma horse is the passing of some kind of habeas corpus act which will secure to every subject of the Emperor that he shall not be arrested without warrant or imprisoned without trial. Otherwise, with what confidence can any man speak his mind freely, honestly, and without fear in the elections which are to enable the nation to respond with loyal enthusiasm to the appeal of the imperial manifesto?

With these four legs, liberty of public meeting, liberty of the press, liberty of association, and security against arbitrary imprisonment, all secured and controlled by law, the Duma will be able to bear the burden which may be put upon its back. Without these four legs, it will be a sham, a mockery, a delusion, and a snare.

The government, slow, cumbrous, and reluctant, promises new laws, but the probability is that they will not be issued except in part before the elections are over.

It must be admitted that the government in constituting the Duma has done its utmost to facilitate the winning of the election by reducing the number of electors to the lowest minimum

that has ever existed in any nation. No one has yet ventured to calculate how many electors there will be on the register when the ballot-box opens. It will probably be an excessive estimate if we put the number at one hundred thousand, not including the peasants—one hundred thousand out of a nation of one hundred and thirty millions! Things are not, however, quite as bad as these figures would suggest. For the peasants, who form two-thirds or three-fourths of the population, are represented in a curious, indirect fashion. Every peasant householder has a vote in the election of the volost, or district assembly. Every ten peasants send one of their number to the volost. These representatives are elected for three years. They are charged with various local administrative duties. All of them were elected before the Duma was established. Elected for one purpose, they are now utilized for another, and they form an overwhelming majority of the electors to the Duma. All figures are mere guesswork, but we take it that the peasant population is one hundred million, or, say, twenty million householders. These are represented by two million members of volosts, or district assemblies. Indirectly, therefore, all the peasants are represented, but the right of choosing their representatives is not vested in the whole body of the peasants, but in the delegates whom they have already elected for an entirely different purpose.

PEASANT REPRESENTATION.

It would, however, be a mistake to imagine that two million peasants are to vote directly for their representatives in the Duma. The system of election is like a Chinese puzzle. The choice of the people is ascertained by a fourfold winnowing, and as I have already explained, the primary election had no reference whatever to the Duma. The rank and file of the peasant electors are assumed to have voted already when they elected their volosts last year or the year before. The members of each volost, or local district assembly, have to elect two of their own members as their representatives in the general district assembly. This is the second stage in theory, but the first in actual reality. The third stage is when the representatives of the volosts in general district assembly have to elect their representatives, although out of their own number, to the electoral college. The number of those representatives varies according to the population of the district. Not until the full product of three successive votings reach the electoral college does the choice of the members of the Duma begin. In every case peasants must

be chosen by peasants. In no case can any peasant not belonging to the locality be selected. Hence, every peasant who presents himself as a duly elected member at the doors of the Duma must have been four several times elected by the peasants of his village, volost district, and province as a fit and proper person to represent them in the Duma of the empire.

But this process of getting the peasant delegates into the electoral college is only part of the complicated process of bringing the Duma into existence. There are other members of the community entitled to vote besides the peasants, and the electoral college of the province is supposed to represent all classes. It will be the easiest way to explain the electoral law of the Russian Empire if I take as a sample the province of Samara, upon the Volga, where I have been spending a few days. It has an area of 38,000 square miles, and a population of 2,750,000. That is to say, it corresponds very closely to the area and population of the State of Indiana. It contains only one town, that of Samara, large enough to be entitled to separate representation in the Duma. Of the five hundred or six hundred members of the Duma, thirteen are allotted to the province of Samara, one for the town, the other twelve for the country districts, in which the small towns are merged. This gives one member to 120,000 population in the town, and one member to every 240,000 in the province. The electoral college of the province of Samara, which has to return twelve members to the Duma, is constituted as follows:

Province of Samara.	Total electors in college.	Peasants.	Landowners.	Town-folk, etc.	Acreage qualifying landowner to vote.
First Dist.....	17	9	4	4	810
Second Dist....	20	7	3	10	945
Third Dist.....	28	16	9	3	945
Fourth Dist....	34	17	9	8	945
Fifth Dist.....	33	17	10	6	1,250
Sixth Dist.....	29	17	8	4	1,475
Seventh Dist..	19	11	5	3	670
	180	94	48	38	

When the college comes together, the first thing to be done is for the peasants, voting separately, to select their own member out of their own number. Having done this, they then join the rest of the college and vote equally with them for the remaining eleven members. These members must be chosen from the members of the college. Any of them or all of them may be peasants, landowners, or town-folk, as the majority may prefer. As the peasants in Samara and in many other provinces are in a ma-

jority of 94 to 86 over all the other members of the college, they would have no trouble in monopolizing the representation. It is not very probable that this will be done. The peasant is shy, unaccustomed to political adventures, and at first, at any rate, he is likely to content himself with voting for the most popular landowner or the most active townsman with whom he does business.

OTHER CLASSES PARTICIPATING.

The landowners, who include owners of real estate, whether of mines or of houses, are elected by electoral committees of their respective districts. These electoral committees of a district, which are charged with the election of members to the electoral college of the province, are composed as follows: (1) The larger landowners; (2) representatives of the smaller landowners; (3) the larger mine-owners; (4) representatives of the owners of real estate and owners of real estate (other than places of business and of industry) to the value of \$7,500; and (5) the clergy and monks possessing Church lands. These electoral committees are summoned and presided over by the marshal of the nobility of the district or his deputy. They choose out of their number, voting by ballot, the number of representatives allotted them in the electoral college.

The electoral committees of the smaller towns not directly represented in the Duma are constituted as follows: (1) Landowners with property rated at \$750; (2) owners of shops and places of business paying the industrial tax; (3) shopkeepers, men of business, and others.

The members of the various electoral committees having chosen their representatives in the electoral college, the election will then take place. The peasant members having elected their special representative, the whole college will proceed to elect the other members allotted to that government. The voting is by ballot, and in cases where the candidates receive an equal number of votes the decision is taken by casting lots. The voting is by ballot, either by balls or by secret voting papers.

The validity of the elections is decided, not by the Duma itself, but by a special electoral machinery of commissions, from which appeal can be taken, in the last resort, to the Senate.

The result of the first election will be awaited with eager curiosity. Whatever the result may be, it can hardly be regarded as a real gauge of the opinion of the nation. The franchise is so restricted that many of the most capable Russians are excluded.

LESSONS FOR AMERICA IN THE JAPANESE ARMY MEDICAL SERVICE.

BY MAJOR LOUIS L. SEAMAN, M.D.

(Author of "The United States Army Ration and Its Adaptability for Use in Tropical Climates," "From Tokio Through Manchuria with the Japanese," etc.)

WITHOUT minimizing for a moment the splendor of Japanese victories on land and sea, at Mukden, Port Arthur, Liao-Yang, or with Togo off Tsushima, in the Korean Straits (and two of these battles are among the bloodiest in history), I yet unhesitatingly assert that Japan's greatest conquests have been in the humanities of war, in the stopping of the needless sacrifice of life by preventable diseases. This dreadful and unnecessary waste of life, especially in conflicts between so-called civilized and Anglo-Saxon races, is one of the most ghastly propositions of the age. The Japanese have gone a long way toward eliminating it. It must never be forgotten that in every great campaign an army faces two enemies. First, the armed forces of the opposing foe, with their various machines of human destruction, which must be met in open battle; and, second, the hidden foe, always found lurking in every camp—the grim specter ever present that gathers its victims while the soldier slumbers in hospital, barracks, or bivouac, the far greater and silent foe, disease. Of these two enemies, the history of warfare for centuries has shown that the first, or open enemy kills about 20 per cent. of the total mortality in the conflict, while the second, or silent enemy kills the 80 per cent.

RAVAGES OF DISEASE IN FORMER WARS.

Longmore's tables, which are accepted as the most reliable statistics of war, and which are based on the records of battles for the past two hundred years, show that there has rarely been a conflict of any great duration in which at least four men have not perished from disease for every one from bullets. In the Russo-Turkish War, 80,000 men died from disease and 20,000 from wounds. In the Crimean campaign, it is asserted on eminent French authority that in six months the allied forces lost 50,000 soldiers from disease and only 2,000 from casualties. In the French campaign in Madagascar, in 1894, of the 14,000 men sent to the front 29 were killed in action and 7,000 from disease, most of which was preventable. In our Spanish-American War, in 1898, in a campaign the actual hostilities of which

lasted six weeks, the deaths from casualties, as given me by the surgeon-general of the United States army, last week, were 293, while those from disease amounted to 3,681, or nearly 14 to 1.

JAPAN'S INSIGNIFICANT LOSSES FROM DISEASE.

Compare these frightful figures with the record of killed, wounded, and sick in the Japanese army from February, 1904, to May, 1905, as furnished me by Minister of War General Terauchi, in Tokio, in August last. There were killed on the field 43,892, or 7.32 per cent. of the entire army in the field; there were wounded 145,527, or 24.27 per cent.; there died of wounds 9,054, or 1.51 per cent.; there died from sickness and disease, including contagious cases, 11,992, or about 2 per cent. of the army. In other words, the total number of deaths from casualties and wounds amounted to 52,946, or nearly 9 per cent. of the army, while the total deaths from sickness amounted to 11,992, or 2 per cent. of the army. This record is unparalleled and unapproached in the history of warfare. How did the Japanese accomplish it? In three preëminently fundamental ways. First, thorough preparation and organization for war, such as was never before made in history; second, through the simple, non-irritating, easily digested ration furnished the troops; and third, because of the brilliant part played by the members of the medical profession in the application of practical sanitation and the stamping out of preventable disease in the army, thereby saving its great hosts for the legitimate purpose of war, the defeating of the enemy in the field.

PREVENTION RATHER THAN CURE.

Ten years ago, in her war with China, Japan's losses from disease were far greater than from casualties, and her authorities recognized that if they were to engage with an antagonist of the strength, prestige, and enormous resources of Russia, this great loss from preventable causes must be overcome. With this aim in view, and untrammelled by the traditions of other lands, she sent her students all over the world to study the army systems in vogue in so-called civilized

countries. With the knowledge thus garnered she evolved a system of her own, based on the practices in vogue in Germany, but greatly modified, and the motto of which might have been, Prevention, not Treatment. She organized her medical department on broad, generous lines, and gave its representatives the rank and power their great responsibilities merited, recognizing that they had to deal with a foe which history has shown has killed 80 per cent. of the total mortality in other wars. She even had the temerity (strange as it may seem to an American or an English army official) to grade her medical men as high as the officers of the line, who combat the enemy who kills only 20 per cent., and to accord them equal authority, except, of course, in the emergency of battle, when all authority devolves, as it should, on the officers of the line. In her home land she organized the most splendid system of hospitals that has ever been devised for the treatment of sick and wounded, and with her army at the front she put into execution the most elaborate and effective system of sanitation that has ever been practised in war.

AN AMPLE HOSPITAL PROVISION.

Upon the declaration of war, she was prepared to house, scientifically treat, and tenderly care for 25,000 wounded in Japan alone, and as the war progressed the hospital capacity was rapidly increased, so that one and one-half years after its commencement, or on the sixth day of July, 1905, the twelve military home hospitals possessed a normal capacity of 58,261. That this great number did not prove overpreparedness was demonstrated after the battle of Mukden, when the total extraordinary hospital capacity of some 80,000 beds, secured by crowding together, was taxed almost to its limits by the shattered phalanxes which poured in by thousands from every transport. It is hardly likely that the military authorities could have foreseen that the war would have developed the greatest recorded battles of the world, with unparalleled movements of fighting soldiers, and a sacrifice of men by wounds so tremendous that even the spectator on the battlefield fortunately fails to grasp the overwhelming horror. Whether the medical department prepared this immense hospital system for disease or bullets is of little importance; the fact being, however, that when the ghastly cortege from Mukden did arrive in Japan, in April, there was hospital room for every disabled man of the thousands and thousands, and instant medical attendance and care and nursing ready and waiting for opportunities of service.

THE MICROSCOPE SUPERSEDES THE SCALPEL.

I have just returned from the headquarters of the Second Imperial Army, on the Mongolian frontier, commanded by General Oku, and the busiest instrument seen during my stay this year, as last, was not the Murata rifle, but the monocular microscope. My opportunities for observation were unexcelled, as the imperial government, in its extreme courtesy, accorded me all the privileges of a foreign medical *attaché*, and weeks were spent in the military hospitals of Japan prior and subsequent to my visit to the front. The war has taught many lessons and destroyed many ideals in matters military as well as surgical, where in the latter case the heretofore accepted idea of the duties of the military surgeon has been shown to be altogether erroneous, where asepsis and antisepsis have relegated the use of the scalpel to comparative obscurity, and where it has been demonstrated most conclusively that the preservation of the army by the prevention of disease is the surgeon's duty, first, last, and nearly all the time.

In surgical technique or in the treatment of the wounded and sick, the Japanese have taught the foreigner comparatively little, but in the field of sanitary science and dietetics they have demonstrated as has never been done before that preventable diseases are preventable, and that the grim specter which lingers in every barrack, tent, and bivouac, and which in the great wars of history has been responsible for eighty out of every one hundred recorded deaths, can be controlled. They have demonstrated that the great incubus of an army in the field, the presence of crowded hospitals, and the large and expensive impedimenta necessary to equip and conduct them, can to a large extent be eliminated. They have preserved their armies for the legitimate purposes for which armies are enlisted—the killing and conquering of an open enemy in the field, instead of having four-fifths of its mortality victims of the silent foe. It is against this dreadful scourge, this needless sacrifice, that the Japanese have made their hardest fight and won their most signal victories,—victories that will redound more to their credit than the expulsion of the Muscovite aggressor.

THE QUESTION BEFORE OUR CONGRESS.

When contemplating these splendid figures that have just been stated,—52,946 deaths from casualties to 11,992 from disease, or more than four deaths from bullets to one from disease, instead of four from disease to one from bullets, as are shown in Longmore's tables, or fourteen men from disease to one from bullets, as was

shown in the Spanish-American War,—the Congress of the United States may appreciate the grave crisis which will arise in our army, unless radical reforms are instituted, should this country become involved in another war. A bill will be introduced at its next session to increase the efficiency of the medical department of the United States army. It failed at the last session because the chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs, and many of his colleagues, regarded it as a "graft" for the medical department, and could not be brought to see wherein it benefited the interests or safeguarded the health of the men who did the fighting, and in this conclusion I believe they were perfectly right, because it was hopelessly defective in essential features.

SANITATION AT PANAMA.

There is a lingering suspicion that the medical department of the army was originally intended to benefit the fighting unit, but the tendency of the existing system is to ignore the necessities of the man who pulls the trigger, and, as interpreted by the House Committee on Military Affairs, to subordinate its interests to political preferment and personal advancement. If convinced of the necessity, Congress undoubtedly would promptly grant all required appropriations, but under the existing system it can see no reason for further advances. If in the new bill a thorough reorganization of the medical department were advocated, elevating its dignity and standing, and wherein it was given the necessary authority to enforce its orders, as is the case with line officers, then indeed I believe Congress would gladly indorse it. We would then see no more such humiliating spectacles as were witnessed in the Spanish War, or more recently at Panama, where the recommendations of a brilliant exponent of the medical corps, Colonel Gorgas, were ignored by a commission principally composed of staff officers, with the consequence of neglected sanitation, resulting in a costly epidemic and the ultimate downfall and disbandment of the commission itself, to say nothing of the delay in the construction of the great canal and the loss of interest on the sixty-million-dollar investment for nearly a year,—an amount of money that would have run the entire medical department of the army for years. The new Panama commission promptly indorsed the findings of Colonel Gorgas, and the only reason he did not repeat on the Isthmus his

splendid record of sanitary reform made in Havana was because he was a victim of this damnable system.

WHERE RED TAPE IS DANGEROUS.

Every department of the United States army is automatus excepting the medical department. The officer of ordnance, of cavalry, of infantry, or even of the signal service, can issue his orders and have them executed. Not so with the medical officer. He can merely submit recommendations or suggestions to the line officer, who may accept them or not, as pleases his fancy. How this worked in the Spanish-American War we all well remember. When the hospitals in Manila were overcrowded with patients (and I was there at the time) there was a deficiency of assistants, and the chief surgeon submitted a recommendation to the major-general commanding to the effect that a cablegram should be sent to Washington requesting fifty additional medical officers and two hundred nurses, this major-general censored the dispatch and refused to send it, on the ground that the authorities at Washington would infer that he did not have "the situation well in hand." Later, the chief surgeon did send a message to the surgeon-general at Washington, outside of military channels, and informed him of the desperate situation and the immediate need of help. But this help did not arrive until long after taps had sounded the requiem of many a poor victim who, had proper precautions been taken, might have been saved.

As stated in my address before the military surgeons at Detroit, on September 28, "until the line and staff officer of the American army is taught the necessity of sanitation and the medical officer is given rank and authority to enforce it, our medical department must remain a humiliating failure. Its continuance under present conditions is no less than an evidence of national imbecility." Until the medical officer is given the rank and power to enforce his orders relative to sanitation, hygiene, and control of dietary, and is made responsible to the Secretary of War, instead of to the line officer in command, there will be no improvement. While there are notable and brilliant exceptions to the rule, it may be safely asserted that the tendency of the existing system is to increase the value of the individual as a medical practitioner in inverse ratio to the time he has been in the service.



THE SANITATION OF JAPAN'S NAVY.

BY S. SUZUKI.

(Surgeon-general of the Imperial Japanese Navy.)

AT Sasebo, on February 6, 1904, all was in readiness aboard our united squadrons. We were to sail that day. For war with Russia was no longer a matter of speculation. I summoned the surgeons of the entire fleet to the quarter-deck of the *Mikasa* and talked to them about the treatment they were to apply to the wounded in the coming struggle. In the course of my brief address I directed them to make use of the aseptic method instead of the antiseptic method, which had been employed during the war with China, ten years before. Instead of fighting disease germs after they had entered the body, we would devote all our resources to preventing their entrance. I advised the surgeons also to avoid, as much as circumstances would permit, all serious and complicated surgical operations, such as amputations, aboard the ships, and especially during action. I emphasized the importance of transferring our wounded to the hospital ships as soon as an action was over. The aseptic method had never been used in our navy. The responsibility for the innovation was upon my shoulders. Naturally, I was very anxious, and very naturally the story of the happy working of the new methods has brought to me satisfaction beyond words.

JAPAN DISCLAIMS NOVELTY.

In our aseptic methods the world would find nothing new. We have simply been the first to put them into practice in war. All our dressing-materials were sterilized by steam. Our surgical instruments were boiled in soda-water. Our surgeons washed their hands in sterilized water. We washed the skin around the wound with sterilized water, with soap applied by a brush. After that, a solution of sublimate was used; then we washed the wound once again with sterilized water. When the wound did not permit the use of soap and water, unhydrated alcohol was used.

You see, then, we have done nothing out of the way—nothing new. Every day, both in America and Europe, the same methods are being used. In other matters of hygiene, we have not been able to safeguard the health of our men by methods hitherto unknown to the medical world. Take the instructions which

our surgeons issue to the men and compare them with those issued to the Western seamen and I venture to say that the one difference between them is the difference between the Nippon language and the languages of the West. You may suppose that we have discovered a few features new to the practitioners of the West and which we used to better advantage because of the peculiarities of diet and of race. Nothing of the kind. In this country I am told that the results we have attained in the treatment of the wounded have never been surpassed, never been equaled, and are, in fact, far beyond anything known to the military surgery of the West. The simple mode of life, the peculiarity of the diet of our men,—to these some of the Western people have ascribed the reason of the satisfactory results we have seen. There is, however, really more fancy than fact in this diagnosis of the case. Aboard our ships we have treated some three hundred Russian wounded, and the results have been the same as with our own men. Most certainly there was no miracle. It may be,—and permit me to say that this conclusion was forced upon me,—after all, an old, old tale. To know is one thing, and to act out, live out, in the life of every day is quite another thing. The West knows quite as much of the matter as we of the East have learned. In knowledge, the disciple is not greater than his master. Not in the brains and the understandings of the methods does the difference seem to lie, but in the will and the hands of men and surgeons to do.

NO PLACE FOR MOCK HEROICS IN A NAVAL ACTION.

Seated around a table in the quiet of the days of peace, naval surgeons the world over have permitted themselves the luxury of becoming wise as to what one should do for the wounded while the shells are raining and the guns speaking. Some would have you rush to the men as they fall and apply the healing art, there beside the exploded shell one or many of whose fragments have been cruel to the men. That is a splendid picture in an heroic war romance; but it could not be found on a fighting ship in the thick of action. If you insist on doing this and many other heroic deeds, the Actual State of Things, which has an eloquence of its own, will

bring to bear upon you many powerful arguments, that you may see the folly of your wisdom.

Consider for a moment. In our navy, even aboard a battleship, there are only three surgeons. They can heroically rush to three men in distress. What are they going to do for a hundred voices calling for their services at the same point of time? In the days of peace, the surgeons of the Nippon navy devote many hours regularly every week to the work of training the men aboard the ships in the art of bandaging wounds, in the prevention and stoppage of bleeding, and in the transport of wounded men. Clerks, riggers, servants, bandsmen, and fire-brigade men form the first and the principal division in this work. Now, these men are trained in first-aid and ambulance work. On the 10th of August, 1904, in the battle of the Yellow Sea, we too wished to work "according to the book." We stationed ambulance parties with first-aid dressings at several points on the upper and main decks of the *Mikasa*. We told those men to rush to the wounded whenever they fell, dress their wounds on the spot, and carry them below upon stretchers. We thought that the plan would work out beautifully. We paid for this romantic notion with the instant death of seven of the ambulance men,—killed in their work of dressing the wounds,—and seven more wounded in the same work. In that action the *Mikasa* was the target of the Russian guns, and it was Russian shells that blew our school notions into fragments. Only about one-third of our wounded had received the first-aid dressing before they were taken down to the surgery. In a large majority of cases the wounded were picked up by their comrades as they fell and carried, not on stretchers, but on the backs or in the arms of their friends.

ADVANTAGE OF TWO SURGERIES ABOARD SHIP.

Through the cloud of cigarette smoke across the same happy table in the piping times of peace people do not always approve of having two surgeries aboard a ship. Nevertheless, on every warship, from a battleship to a destroyer, it is important, almost imperative, to have two surgeries at least. "In the case of a small cruiser or a destroyer, where there is only one surgeon, what is he to do with two surgeries?" they would say. All that I can say in answer is that the critics ought to have been on board of the *Mikasa* during the battle of the Nippon Sea and seen what a Russian shell did to one of our surgeries. It certainly does not take a prophet to see what confusion, what waste of labor, and what loss of time would have resulted from its destruction had we not had

another to take its place. It is not a rare happening, the visit of a shell to a surgery and sick-berths. Aboard the same *Mikasa*, in one of the other battles of the war, a shell wrecked her sick-berths. As a matter of history, the surgeons of the Nippon navy had learned the lesson in this matter long before the battles of the present war. When our ships fought against the Chinese, in the war of 1894-95, there was only one surgery aboard our ship, the *Hiyei*. A shell exploded in it. The *Hiyei* suffered so severely that the result was simply appalling.

LOCATION AND PROTECTION OF SURGERIES.

The location of the ship's surgery is a vital matter. The ideal place is somewhere below the water line, furnished with proper apparatus for conveyance and for ventilation. The only way to have such a surgery is to provide for it at the time of building. It is a difficult matter, however, even then. You must always remember that the prime end and aim of a man-of-war is to fight, and fighting is a rather far cry from the gentle art of healing. As a matter of fact, not a single ship in the imperial navy of Nippon has its surgeries ideally placed. On a few Russian ships we captured, however, I saw them thus happily placed.

In an unprotected cruiser, one portion is practically as safe as another; it is all exposed. It would be wise to take every precaution for the protection of the surgery in such a case. Canvas screens and mantlets serve admirably in protecting the surgery from the fragments of shells. Near Port Arthur, our gunboat, *Chokai*, once assisted and covered our land forces. A shell entered close to the cabin which was then used as her surgery, and exploded. But the surgery was kept quite free from the fragments of the shell, because of the screens.

UP-TO-DATE EQUIPMENT.

Steam sterilizers, buckets for soiled materials, ice-boxes, are regulation equipment for a surgery. We have found it convenient to add to the list a large pair of tailors' shears. You will be grateful for these when you have to cut off the clothes of the wounded. As for an operating-table, one can improvise it out of chests, which are found in numbers aboard a ship. Jugs with long narrow spouts filled with water also never fail to win the gratitude of the wounded. Tubes for sucking are too slow for the eager and parched lips, and so also are tumblers. Ready-made splints of many kinds and in number would assist a surgeon materially. Fenestrated zinc-plate splints are useful also. With them it is always wise to have beside you a pair of stout nippers

to cut them to shape, as a blacksmith might not answer your call any too soon in the heat of a battle. Cotton rollers six or seven inches wide, three or four changes of operating-clothes for a surgeon, and a transfusion apparatus of salt solution are good things to have.

INVASIONS OF DISEASE.

There is nothing striking or special in our sanitary arrangements in war time. Infectious and venereal diseases are the two enemies which gnaw at the very root of the fighting efficiency of a navy. Naturally, they receive the most serious attention of the surgeon. We saw a transient appearance of dysentery among our men in front of Port Arthur during August and September of 1904. The total number of cases of dysentery in the entire fleet from the beginning of the war to June, 1905, amounted to 151. I think flies were responsible for the outbreak of disease. It was impossible to keep them out. Whenever the ships of our fleet came in touch with colliers, the pests came aboard in spite of any and everything we could do. Whenever boats were sent out to examine Chinese junks, they invariably brought back to the ships formidable armies of flies.

The total number of cases of typhoid from the beginning of the war to the end of June, 1905, was 241, which shows that there was no special increase during the war period. We had only a few cases at one time, and therefore were sure that the morbid germs came from without, not from within. Cases of enteric fever will break out, now and then, even in time of peace, in spite of every precaution. And we are happy in seeing that throughout the war period there was no special increase in this disease. In time of war it is not so difficult to prevent the invasion of venereal disease among the men. Before the outbreak of our war with Russia, however, we paid very serious attention to this matter. By means of lectures, through the example of the officers, by professional instructions and private exhortations, no stone was left unturned to bring about a keen awakening of moral sense among the men. There had been a long period of waiting at Sasebo before we sailed for Port Arthur. During the last few weeks, some of the men were not quite as prudent as they might have been. These cases, however, speedily yielded to treatment aboard the ship, and from that time on, of course, the men were kept out of temptation perforce.

LESS SICKNESS IN WAR THAN IN PEACE.

In war time, the work of the crew is increased many times over that of peace times. The

hours of sleep and rest are reduced to the minimum; shore leave is entirely suspended; coal-ing at sea or at the base calls for a constant succession of hard work, both for officers and men. The engineer sections are never at rest, even while the ship is at anchor. Steam must be kept up, and the watches are more than doubled. The amount of rations is increased 20 per cent., but even this does not apply to rice. The supply of rice is strictly kept below twelve ounces, as the overconsumption of rice tends to produce cases of "kakke." In the light of these facts the health average of the long period of campaign reads well. In the year 1903, the total percentage of sick was 3.87; in 1904, it fell to 3.32, and in the first half of the present year it again fell to 3.01.

THE CONNING-TOWER A DISCARDED REFUGE.

In the matter of protection for the personnel of the fighting ships this war has added many a curious chapter. It had been believed that the conning-tower was the safest place aboard a ship. Our Admiral Togo always fought outside of it. Throughout the action of August 10, as well as during the entire battle of the Sea of Nippon, he stood unprotected upon the highest, or compass, bridge. He received not even a slight wound. The conning-tower has what are called observation slits. They are cut very low. Of necessity, however, they are made rather wide, that the officers inside may command a wide range of observation. Many a time fragments of exploding shells found their way into the conning-tower through these slits and seriously wounded the men inside.

TERRIBLE EXECUTION OF A SINGLE RUSSIAN SHELL.

To show how a slight oversight results very seriously, let me mention one singular case on the *Mikasa*. It was in the action of the 10th of August on the Yellow Sea, and we were standing with Admiral Togo on the compass bridge. There stood a semaphore in the fore part of the flagship. That might have been removed without any serious loss to the fighting efficiency of the ship. But it had not been taken down. A Russian shell struck it and exploded. Twenty-three men were down instantly; some of them were killed outright, others were wounded. Among the number was the commander of the *Mikasa*, Captain Ijichi, who stood with the admiral not far from where I was. If only the semaphore had been taken down,—but of course we are usually richer in hindsight than in foresight. We wished to remove Captain Ijichi to a hospital ship. Not even a surgeon of the Nippon navy is always obeyed strictly. The cap-

tain would not listen to any such tame speech while the voices of his own guns were filling his ears. He would stay with his ship while the *Mikasa* was called upon to face the enemy. A fragment of the shell entered and lodged in the calf of his leg. Without removing the shell-fragment, we treated the wound in the usual manner. It healed up completely. Fragments of a shell are sterilized and purified by the intense heat to which they are subjected, and there is no fear of suppuration from them. When a fragment on entering the body carries with it a piece of a man's clothing, which naturally is not sterilized, we are at once notified of its presence by the formation of pus. After the fall of Port Arthur, when it was known that it would be a long time before the Baltic squadron of Russia could make its appearance in the far-Eastern waters, Captain Ijichi devoted a few weeks to a hospital and to his wound. There the healed wound was opened and the fragment of the shell taken out. When the Russian ships came half the world round, the captain was ready to greet them; he saw the battle of Nippon Sea thoroughly healed of his wounds.

VARIOUS WOUNDS INFLICTED IN NAVAL FIGHTS.

As happens in every war, we saw many a curious thing, especially in wounds. When a shell explodes and the men are wounded by its fragments and splinters, the wounds show the characteristics of laceration in the fleshy as well as in the bony part of the body. Generally, the mouths of the wounds are smaller than the exits. This is not always the case, however. Singularly enough, one sometimes meets a case entirely opposite. We do not know the cause of this singular phenomenon; we only know that it is a fact. And as a matter of history, we have found in many a blind wound fragments of shell several times larger than the mouths of the wounds through which they had entered. At other times we were puzzled at finding a wound with only one opening, and at finding, after a careful search with Roentgen rays, no sign of splinter or fragment lodging inside. Sometimes we found blood-vessels cut across, but very rarely did the profuse loss of blood result from such wounds, the reason being that the curling of the cut ends of the vessel closed the opening and prevented the hemorrhage. We have found also that arterial bleeding is comparatively rare, for the reason that the shell-fragments often pass very close to the arteries without the least injury to them, even in cases where the wounds are large. As for the kinds of wounds inflicted upon the men in the course of a naval battle, they varied both in shape and nature. Often one man re-

ceives more than one wound. The following table shows something of the different nature of wounds received by our men from the beginning of the war to the battle of the Nippon Sea:

Contusions.....	480
Abrasions.....	212
Incised and punctured wounds.....	26
Wounds with loss of soft tissues.....	53
Lacerated wounds.....	691
Blind wounds.....	224
Perforated wounds.....	113
Pulverized wounds.....	43
Mutilated wounds.....	129
Concussion of labyrinth; rupture and congestion of tympanic membranes.....	116
Compound fractures and dislocations.....	237
Explosive wounds.....	570
Asphyxia.....	25
Drowned.....	716
Total.....	3,764

STATISTICS OF JAPAN'S NAVAL CASUALTIES.

The following table shows the killed and wounded from the beginning of the war to August 15, 1905:

	Killed.	Wounded.	Total.
Attack upon Port Arthur (February 9, 1904).....	3	69	72
Battle of the Yellow Sea (August 10, 1904).....	65	161	226
Battle of Ulsan Bay (August 14, 1904).....	36	96	132
Naval artillery brigade (June 26-Dec. 31, 1904).....	30	313	343
Battle of the Nippon Sea (May 27-28, 1905).....	88	611	699
Others.....	1,689	541	2,230
Totals.....	1,891	1,791	3,682

We have heard many a curious tale of lives saved because of some trifling things which the wounded men carried in their pockets, and which prevented a further ingress of a bullet or a fragment of shell into their bodies. We captured a certain Russian officer, who had been wounded. At the time of receiving the wound, this Russian officer had a number of gold coins in his trousers pocket. When we came to treat his wound, we had to extract every one of the gold coins from his buttock, into which a splinter of a shell had driven them.

The most eloquent story of the war, so far as the working of the medical end of the navy is concerned, is written in figures. The total number of casualties from the beginning of the war to August, 1905, was 3,682. Of this number, 1,891 were killed and 1,791 were wounded. Of the wounded, 117 died. Of the 1,891 deaths, 1,445 were due to drowning caused by the sinking of ships by Russian mines. Of the 1,791 wounded, there were 647 who required hospital treatment; of these, only 32 died.

A GREAT FEDERATION OF AMERICAN CHURCHES.

BY GEORGE PERRY MORRIS.

THE Inter-Church Conference on Federation, which meets in Carnegie Hall, New York City, November 15-20, is expected by its projectors to marshal a majority of the Evangelical, Protestant denominations of the United States in a federation "for more effective promotion of the interests of the Kingdom of God." Official delegates from the highest representative legislative or administrative bodies of twenty-seven different denominations with eighteen million adherents will meet for the first time to discuss ways and means "along simple lines that will create a permanent council which, without interference with denominational autonomy or affairs, will open the way to secure federated action in every part of the country that will advance and conserve the activities and interests of the churches," and that will establish in the field of national affairs what the local and State church federations have proved to be in the smaller areas of civic activity,—viz., a force which will remove "social evils, cleanse centers of vice and corruption, promote temperance, Sabbath observance, and general morality."

In support of this plan the President of the United States (by letter), Governor Higgins, Mayor McClellan, Justice Brewer, of the federal Supreme Court; Senator Beveridge, of Indiana; bishops of the Protestant Episcopal and Methodist Episcopal churches, and moderators of national assemblies of other of the denominations, as well as eminent men from the ranks of the clergy and laity, are enlisted, and are announced to speak on A United Church and (a) Religious Education, and (b) The Social Order, and (c) Home and Foreign Missions, and (d) The Fellowship of the Faith, and (e) Evangelization, and (f) The National Life, the meeting closing with a discussion of The Kingdom of God,—the Transcendent Aim of a United Church. Seldom if ever in this country's record of religious assemblies has a programme been worked out so well coördinated in its scheme and all its details, and enlisting speakers of such eminence.

The nearest analogue to the scheme of organization which will be debated and worked out at this meeting is that of the National Council of the Evangelical Free Churches of England and Wales, which has brought the Free Churchmen,

or Nonconformists, of those countries so near together, and which is described in the following article by Dr. G. Campbell Morgan. This British council has not the breadth which the American federation will have, inasmuch as it is made up exclusively of sects,—Congregational or Presbyterian in polity or forms of church government,—while the American federation will have, at its opening session, at least, representatives of the Protestant Episcopal Church, with its Episcopal polity. The National Council of the Free Churches excludes Unitarians, and by a decision of the executive committee of the American meeting representatives of eminence chosen as delegates by the National Unitarian Conference will not be admitted to the meeting in New York. This decision, however, may be reversed by the delegates present.

The impetus to organization on a national scale of a movement lessening denominational friction, abolishing unwise multiplication of churches and other forms of ecclesiastical machinery, and setting men and forces shoulder to shoulder against a common foe naturally has grown out of the success of local and State alliances or federations, where the principles commonly accepted and the ends to be sought for have been worked out on a smaller scale, such, for instance, as the Interdenominational Commission in the State of Maine, of which President Hyde, of Bowdoin College, has been a moving spirit, and the federations of States like Rhode Island and of many of the cities and towns where a joint canvass of population is carried on by the churches in common, shepherding of the unchurched disclosed by the census, and fraternal coöperation of Protestants, Roman Catholics, and Jews in getting at data for intelligent evangelistic and reformatory action have pointed the way to coöperation on a broader field of action.

The significance of this movement is that it aims at essential church unity without venturing on the field of theory, where former movements for organic church unity have been wrecked. It comes at the desired end from the standpoint of spirit, and not doctrine, from the standpoint of success in promoting ecclesiastical efficiency and civic righteousness rather than by procuring en-

tire agreement on issues of ecclesiastical origins or social ends.

Contributory to the unanimity with which the plan has been accepted by so representative a body of church courts and legislatures are several factors in our national life to-day. Institutional religion is passing through a period of crisis which is forcing its supporters to combine for protection and reform, in order to meet the altered mood of the world. The emphasis in school and in college, in religious organizations, and in societies like the Y. M. C. A., the Y. P. S. C. E., and the Epworth League is not sectarian. Competition of the state in forms of activity formerly controlled by the Church is creating grave problems of finance for the Church which compel it to husband its resources. Study of the origins of religions and the birth of the Christian ecclesia does not confirm most of the exclusive and devious historic claims from which sectarian divisions hitherto have sprung. The laity at home are refusing longer to invest in enterprises which are unnecessarily competitive, and which have back of them nothing fundamental and permanent, spiritually judged.

Last, but not least, the example of the churches of the Protestant mission fields is at last being accepted by the home churches, and a unity of spirit and polity which has been found workable abroad is now coming to be the ideal for the churches at home. Not only are the separated Wesleyans of England devising a union similar to the Wesleyan unity of Canada and Australia, but in both those portions of the British Empire Wesleyans, Congregationalists, and Presbyterians are in the early stages of a movement for unity which will give a modern creed and a modern polity expressing the modern mind and

the modern man's latest experiment in church government. Northern and Southern Presbyterians are uniting on the mission field where they cannot yet unite at home. English and American Congregationalists are setting up union associations in India and China, and have decided to stop competition in education in north China. The Protestant missionaries of Korea have just met to devise a united church for that appendage of the new Japan, and on September 25, 1905, a delegated body of the Protestant missionaries of China, Anglican and Protestant Episcopal included, met in Peking to plan for the ending of strife, for closer unity, and a federation of the missions of China.

The personal element in this conference deserves some recognition. Chief credit for its slow but steady coming into being is due to its secretary, the Rev. E. B. Sanford, who began thirty-three years ago, in a periodical which he helped support, to plead for church union. Subsequent service as editor and promoter of religious and educational enterprises has given him a wide acquaintance among leaders in all the denominations. Influential as an adviser, for a long time interested in the matter, the Rev. Dr. William Hayes Ward, of the *Independent*, has been prominent more than any other journalist, while of laymen, those especially conspicuous have been Mr. J. Cleveland Cady, the architect; Dr. Lucien Warner, prominent in the International Y. M. C. A. work, and Mr. William H. Wanamaker. The chairman of the executive committee, newly enlisted as administrative head of the organization, is the Rev. Dr. William H. Roberts, a statistician and administrative officer of much eminence among Presbyterians.

CHURCH FEDERATION IN ENGLAND.

BY THE REV. G. CAMPBELL MORGAN, D.D.

IN view of the great Inter-Church Conference on Federation to be held in New York City, I have been asked to outline something of the history and work of the National Council of Evangelical Free Churches of England and Wales—an organization which for ten or more years has been doing the work which your proposed federation of churches will seek to accomplish. True, of necessity the lines of action upon which an American organization will proceed must be somewhat different from those

which the National Free Church Council has followed. You in America have no conflict with the state or with a state church such as we have been compelled to wage; but you have the same social and moral problems to solve, for which you need the collective wisdom of all the Protestant hosts of your country. Then, too, America is in need of just the same kind of organization which will promote the unity, good-fellowship, and coöperation of different denominations, as the national council on this side has

meant the drawing together and uniting of Methodists, Baptists, Congregationalists, Presbyterians, and other sects.

First, as to history. Churchmen of all ages have met and discussed the union of Christendom, without, so far, being able to bring us within measurable distance of that ideal. Some discussions which were held many years ago at Grindelwald, in Switzerland, attended by members of several Christian churches, and having for their object the discussion of Christian unity, showed that the way of organized unity, or common action, was still a long way off. But, if they showed that the gulf between the Catholic and the Protestant ideas was too great to be bridged, they also enabled Free Church leaders to realize fully the fundamental unity of the Free Churches and their deep demarcation from Anglo-Catholics. The ideal of Free Church unity was in the air, and the reception of an article Dr. Guinness Rogers contributed to the *Methodist Times* of February 20, 1890, advocating a church congress on a Nonconformist basis, showed that the time was ripe for some action to be taken. The article had been written at the request of the Rev. Hugh Price Hughes, M.A., who perhaps more than any other man made possible the English National Free Church Council movement. Leading Free Church ministers wrote approving of such a congress as Dr. Rogers had suggested, and it certainly appeared that something should be done in this direction.

Local Free Church councils of a non-representative character had begun spontaneously and sporadically to spring out of Nonconformist ministers' fraternals, when, in 1891, after private negotiations, a preliminary private conference of influential Free Church ministers and laymen was held in London, at the house of Mr. Percy W. Bunting, M.A., the present editor of the *Contemporary Review* and also of the *Methodist Times*. It was resolved to summon a conference of Free Churchmen in Manchester during the following autumn, and an executive committee of ministers and laymen was appointed, with the late Dr. Mackennal, of Bowdon, whose name is indissolubly associated with this movement, as secretary.

That congress met in the Central Hall, Manchester, on Monday, November 7, 1892, and was an undoubted success. The chief speakers at the first demonstration in connection with the gatherings were Drs. Monro Gibson, Clifford, and Berry.

The congress discussed first principles.—“the Church, the Ministry, the Sacraments, and the Fellowship,”—subjects which at once brought

up all the questions on which the Free Churches had been divided for three hundred years. As Dr. Mackennal has written, “It was at once perceived that the same idea of the Church was held by Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists; the differences were of method, or of interpretation, not of the substance of the faith.” After considering principles, the congress then discussed what practical religious work might be done in common. Mr. Percy Bunting introduced “Town Problems,” and the Rev. Thomas Law Nonconformist “Parishes.”

The congress was a mere meeting of persons, having no formal representative character, but indirectly representing the Congregationalists, Baptists, Presbyterians, Wesleyans, New Connection Methodists, Calvinistic Methodists, Bible Christians, and members of the “Free Church of England.” Members of the Society of Friends also have from almost the first taken part in the movement.

This first congress of 1892, by its nature and success, at once demonstrated the demand for and possibility of Free Church union. It was resolved to hold a second congress in the spring of 1894. In the interval, such was the impetus given to the movement that many isolated Free Church councils were formed, and the Rev. Thomas Law, then of Bradford, who had been closely identified with the movement from the beginning, went from town to town forming these local councils.

THE BASIS OF REPRESENTATION.

So far, the movement had reached the stage to which federation has at present arrived in America. A great congress, in some respects similar to that to be held in New York, had met and foreshadowed the possibility of a closer Free Church union. The second congress, which was held at Leeds in the spring of 1894, had to determine upon what basis any future organization should proceed. It was intended that a truly representative Free Church council should be formed, but there were two methods upon which this might be done. The view which had at first found favor in some quarters was that it should consist of representatives elected by the different denominations as such, and that the representatives should officially represent these denominations. The Rev. Hugh Price Hughes, M.A., and the Rev. Thomas Law both offered a resolute opposition to this method, and strongly urged that the basis of representation should be territorial. The convincing argument was that the territorial basis,—in short, the representation of councils and federations,—would avoid sectarian distinction and also evade the possibility of

compromising or committing separate churches to any particular policy. It would also mean that representatives would attend the congress, not as Baptists, or Methodists, or Presbyterians, or Congregationalists, but simply as Evangelical Free Churchmen, a fact which in itself was a proclamation to the world that the Free Churches were in essence one.

It cannot be too strongly insisted of what importance this decision was. Had the denominational basis of representation been decided upon, it must have meant the inefficient working and possibly the future wrecking of the scheme. It can be easily understood that direct representation from different denominations would perpetuate the distinctions between the different bodies. Every question of any importance would have to be referred back to the appointing assemblies, and the representatives would be afraid of taking any definite action for fear of committing their respective official bodies. The constitution which was adopted a few years later provided that each local council, formed in harmony with the principles of the national council, should be entitled to send as many representatives—men or women—to each annual council as the executive committee should from time to time determine. Although a few personal members are still admitted, the local representative element is alone entitled to vote, and preponderates at the assemblies. It will be seen that this method, in the words of Mr. Percy Bunting, "rests upon the representation, not of distinct religious bodies, but of local churches, taking the religious society habitually worshipping in a particular building as the unit. This unit, amid a great variety of institutions built by the aggregation in different forms of many units, is a fact common to all the Free Churches,—indeed, to all Christian churches. It is the primary cell of Christian organization, and in reverting to it for the basis of the constitution the national council has adopted a system as wide and as fundamental as the institutions of Christianity permit. Firmly built upon the Christian intuitions and the Christian history, the national council possesses the note of absolute catholicity, leaving out only those who insist upon a sectarian position, who are deficient in the great doctrines of the faith. The council is the great and permanent evangelical assembly of the country, and may well be called the National Evangelical Church of England and Wales."

It is important to note that all the Evangelical Free Church denominations are included in the scope of this alliance, and representatives from the Congregational and Baptist churches, the

Methodist churches, the Presbyterian Church of England, the Free Presbyterian Church, the Society of Friends, etc., take part in all the deliberations of the council.

In view of the decision of the Leeds congress to work on the territorial plan, it was resolved at once to form local councils, which in their turn should elect representatives to the national council. It was also decided that for the future there should be an official president for each annual congress. The Rev. Thomas Law was appointed organizing secretary for the purpose of forming local councils throughout the country.

ORGANIZING LOCAL COUNCILS.

At the third congress, which met at Birmingham in March, 1895, it was evident that the movement was rapidly taking definite shape. As a result of the organizing skill of the secretary and the persuasive oratory and statesmanship particularly of the late H. P. Hughes and Dr. Berry, one hundred and thirty new Free Church councils had been formed. For the first time the Free Church Congress assumed something of its present representative character. Dr. Berry was its president. As before his constructive statesmanship had guided the development of the new movement, so now his noble, Christian temper gave a spiritual note to the movement which it has never since lost. Dr. Berry declared from the chair that the only explanation of the movement was "the present-day inspiration of the Holy Ghost, acting in and through the churches of Jesus Christ." The Birmingham congress heard with thankfulness that three-fourths of the new councils had undertaken house-to-house visitation, that many united evangelical missions had been held, and much electoral work done for the purity of local administration. Mr. George Cadbury and the late Mr. Richard Cadbury came forward with generous financial assistance for the work of forming local councils.

Nottingham had the honor of welcoming the first National Free Church Council proper. It met in the spring of 1896, under the presidency of the Rev. H. Price Hughes, the first president duly and formally elected by a representative congress of the Evangelical Free Churches of England and Wales. It was an honor befitting one who had been in many ways a pioneer of the new movement and one of its finest "driving forces." At the Nottingham council the new constitution was adopted.

The second annual council was held at the City Temple, London, in 1897, Dr. J. Monro Gibson being president. The number of local councils had increased to three hundred and

eighty-four, while at the third annual council, held at Bristol, the number of local councils represented was five hundred.

Since that time the national council has met every year in March. The tenth meeting was held this year in Manchester, with Dr. Horton as president. These annual meetings of the national council have been characterized by a steady growth of spiritual power and breadth of outlook. The representative membership has increased each year until now some eight hundred councils are represented and fifty federations of councils.

THE "FREE CHURCH CATECHISM."

The Free Church Council movement has left its mark on the life of the Free Churches of England. It would be impossible to give details of all its work, but some of the landmarks in its history are worth recording. One of the most remarkable literary and theological products of the movement is "The Evangelical Free Church Catechism." This catechism is the result of the labors of a great committee of leading Free Churchmen, upon the draft prepared by the Rev. Principal Dykes, D.D. The Rev. H. P. Hughes acted as chairman and convener, and the recent "Life" by his daughter gives some interesting details of their meetings at his house. While not binding upon any Free Church, this catechism is a remarkable demonstration of the fundamental unity and progressive orthodoxy of Evangelical Free Churchmen of all schools, and has been accepted by them all. It has been of the utmost service already; about half a million have been sold in England, and it has been translated into Italian, French, Welsh, and other languages.

SPIRITUAL RESULTS OF THE MOVEMENT.

In 1901, the Free Church Council undertook a vast simultaneous mission all over the country, about five thousand united missions being held at one time. It resulted in the addition of a great number of members; but its chief influence was the awakening of the churches.

The chief work of the national council is spiritual; hence, whatever action may have to be taken from time to time in defense of the rights of the Free Churches, there is always some definitely spiritual work going on. The council's mission staff includes Gipsy Smith,—who is to visit America again next year,—Mr. W. R. Lane, and the Rev. J. Tolefree Parr. In addition to these a large number of missionaries are employed more or less during the year. The united missions they have conducted are yearly increasing in size, importance, and results.

RELATION TO POLITICAL AND SOCIAL INTERESTS.

The objects of the federation are, and ever must be, religious, and not political. But there are occasions on which, in the name of politics, party politics invade the sphere of spiritual interests, and then the national council has felt itself in duty bound to throw all its forces and strength into the cause of public righteousness. For the past two or three years the council has been engaged in a struggle for national education. This conflict was forced upon it by the introduction by the government of an education measure designed to put denominational teaching on the rates. This the Free Churches strongly opposed. In a land where there is no state church and no privileged class it is difficult to understand the position of affairs in England; with a state church which almost of necessity is political, and which of late has used the state to further its own ends, Free Churchmen could not but fight in an organized way against such a system of taxation.

Besides work of this kind, the Free Church councils are responsible for a vast array of social and religious undertakings; there is not a department in the life of the churches which the councils do not touch. All over the country the councils organize united open-air work; the liquor traffic is fought at Brewster Sessions and by creating public opinion; action is taken on behalf of the imperiled British Sabbath; strong united effort is put forth against the gambling evil; a definite endeavor is made on behalf of social purity,—the Council of South London has been the means of shutting up more than five hundred brothels. The way in which a movement like the Free Church Council will develop is shown by its offshoots,—for instance, some years ago the national council started the Girls' Guild, an organization to band together and help Free Church girls; this now has about four hundred branches in all parts of the country, and within the last two or three years no less than fifteen permanent homes for girls have been opened in different centers. Quite recently a Young Free Churchmen's Auxiliary has been started, and although this is quite in its infancy, the idea contains vast possibilities. Then there is a prosperous publication department attached to the national council, which not only spreads abroad the principles of the Free Churches and supplies theological and church literature of a high order, but contributes a respectable sum toward the expenses of the federation.

It may safely be said that the National Free Church Council of England and Wales has now passed into an established institution, working on a well-defined and solid basis.

TEXT OF THE RUSSO-JAPANESE TREATY.

(Signed at Portsmouth, N. H., September 5, 1905.)

THE Emperor of Japan on one part and the Emperor of All the Russias on the other part, animated by a desire to restore the blessings of peace to their countries, have resolved to conclude a treaty of peace, and have for this purpose named their plenipotentiaries, —that is to say, for his Majesty the Emperor of Japan, Baron Komura Jutaro Jusami, Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun, his minister of foreign affairs, and his Excellency Takahira Kogoro, Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, his minister to the United States, and for his Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, his Excellency Serge Witte, his secretary of state and president of the Committee of Ministers of the Empire of Russia, and his Excellency Baron Roman Rosen, Master of the Imperial Court of Russia, his majesty's ambassador to the United States, who, after having exchanged their full powers, which were found to be in good and due form, have concluded the following articles:

Article I.—There shall henceforth be peace and amity between their Majesties the Emperor of Japan and the Emperor of All the Russias and between their respective states and subjects.

Article II.—The Imperial Russian Government, acknowledging that Japan possesses in Korea paramount political, military, and economical interests, engage neither to obstruct nor interfere with measures for guidance, protection, and control which the imperial government of Japan may find necessary to take in Korea. It is understood that Russian subjects in Korea shall be treated in exactly the same manner as the subjects and citizens of other foreign powers,—that is to say, they shall be placed on the same footing as the subjects and citizens of the most favored nation. It is also agreed, in order to avoid causes of misunderstanding, that the two high contracting parties will abstain on the Russian-Korean frontier from taking any military measure which may menace the security of Russian or Korean territory.

Article III.—Japan and Russia mutually engage:

First.—To evacuate completely and simultaneously Manchuria, except the territory affected by the lease of the Liao-Tung Peninsula, in conformity with the provisions of the additional Article I. annexed to this treaty, and,

Second.—To restore entirely and completely to the exclusive administration of China all the portions of Manchuria now in occupation or under the control of the Japanese or Russian troops, with the exception of the territory above mentioned.

The imperial government of Russia declare that they have not in Manchuria any territorial advantages or preferential or exclusive concessions in the impairment of Chinese sovereignty or inconsistent with the principle of equal opportunity.

Article IV.—Japan and Russia reciprocally engage not to obstruct any general measures common to all countries which China may take for the development of the commerce or industry of Manchuria.

Article V.—The Imperial Russian Government transfers and assigns to the imperial government of Japan, with the consent of the government of China, the lease of Port Arthur, Talien, and the adjacent territory and territorial waters, and all rights, privileges, and concessions connected with or forming part of such lease, and they also transfer and assign to the imperial government of Japan all public works and properties in the territory affected by the above-mentioned lease. The two contracting parties mutually engage to obtain the consent of the Chinese Government mentioned in the foregoing stipulation. The imperial government of Japan on their part undertake that the proprietary rights of Russian subjects in the territory above referred to shall be perfectly respected.

Article VI.—The Imperial Russian Government engage to transfer and assign to the imperial government of Japan without compensation and with the consent of the Chinese Government the railway between Chang-Chung-Fu and Kuan-Chang-Tsu and Port Arthur, and all the branches, together with all the rights, privileges, and properties appertaining thereto in that region, as well as all the coal mines in said region belonging to or worked for the benefit of the railway. The two high contracting parties mutually engage to obtain the consent of the government of China mentioned in the foregoing stipulation.

Article VII.—Japan and Russia engage to exploit their respective railways in Manchuria exclusively for commercial and industrial purposes, and in nowise for strategic purposes. It is understood that this restriction does not apply to the railway in the territory affected by the lease of the Liao-Tung Peninsula.

Article VIII.—The imperial governments of Japan and Russia, with the view to promote and facilitate intercourse and traffic, will, as soon as possible, conclude a separate convention for the regulation of their connecting railway services in Manchuria.

Article IX.—The Imperial Russian Government cedes to the imperial government of Japan in perpetuity and full sovereignty the southern portion of the island of Saghalien, and all the islands adjacent thereto, and the public works and properties thereon. The fiftieth degree of north latitude is adopted as the northern boundary of the ceded territory. The exact alignment of such territory shall be determined in accordance with the provisions of the additional Article XI. annexed to this treaty. Japan and Russia mutually agree not to construct in their respective possessions on the island of Saghalien, or the adjacent islands, any fortifications or other similar military works. They also respectively engage not to take any military measures which may impede the free navigation of the Strait of La Perouse and the Strait of Tartary.

Article X.—It is reserved to Russian subjects, inhabitants of the territory ceded to Japan, to sell their real property, and retire to their country, but if they prefer to remain in the ceded territory they will be maintained and protected in the full exercise of their

industries and rights of property, on condition of submitting to the Japanese laws and jurisdiction. Japan shall have full liberty to withdraw the right of residence in or to deport from such territory any inhabitants who labor under political or administrative disability. She engages, however, that the proprietary rights of such inhabitants shall be fully respected.

Article XI.—Russia engages to arrange with Japan for granting to Japanese subjects rights of fishery along the coasts of the Russian possessions in the Japan, Okhotsk, and Bering seas. It is agreed that the foregoing engagement shall not affect rights already belonging to Russian or foreign subjects in those regions.

Article XII.—The treaty of commerce and navigation between Japan and Russia having been annulled by the war, the imperial governments of Japan and Russia engage to adopt as a basis for their commercial relations pending the conclusion of a new treaty of commerce and navigation the basis of the treaty which was in force previous to the present war, the system of reciprocal treatment on the footing of the most favored nation, in which are included import and export duties, customs formalities, transit and tonnage dues, and the admission and treatment of agents, subjects, and vessels of one country in the territories of the other.

Article XIII.—So soon as possible after the present treaty comes in force all prisoners of war shall be reciprocally restored. The imperial governments of Japan and Russia shall each appoint a special commissioner to take charge of the prisoners. All prisoners in the hands of one government shall be delivered to and received by the commissioner of the other government or by his duly authorized representative in such convenient numbers and such convenient ports of the delivering state as such delivering state shall notify in advance to the commissioner of the receiving state. The governments of Japan and Russia shall present each other so soon as possible after the delivery of the prisoners is completed with a statement of the direct expenditures respectively incurred by them for the care and maintenance of the prisoners from the date of capture or surrender and up to the time of death or delivery. Russia engages to repay to Japan so soon as possible after the exchange of statement as above provided the difference between the actual amount so expended by Japan and the actual amount similarly disbursed by Russia.

Article XIV.—The present treaty shall be ratified by their Majesties the Emperor of Japan and the Emperor of All the Russias. Such ratification shall be with as little delay as possible, and in any case no later than fifty days from the date of the signature of the treaty, to be announced to the imperial governments of Japan and Russia respectively through the French minister at Tokio and the ambassador of the United States at St. Petersburg, and from the date of the later of such announcements this treaty shall in all its parts come into full force. The formal exchange of ratifications shall take place at Washington so soon as possible.

Article XV.—The present treaty shall be signed in duplicate in both the English and French languages. The texts are in absolute conformity, but in case of a discrepancy in the interpretation the French text shall prevail.

In conformity with the provisions of Articles III. and IX. of the treaty of peace between Japan and Russia of this date, the undersigned plenipotentiaries have concluded the following additional articles:

Sub-Article to Article III.—The imperial governments of Japan and Russia mutually engage to commence the withdrawal of their military forces from the territory of Manchuria simultaneously and immediately after the treaty of peace comes into operation, and within a period of eighteen months after that date the armies of the two countries shall be completely withdrawn from Manchuria, except from the leased territory of the Liao-Tung Peninsula. The forces of the two countries occupying the front positions shall first be withdrawn.

The high contracting parties reserve to themselves the right to maintain guards to protect their respective railway lines in Manchuria. The number of such guards shall not exceed fifteen per kilometer, and within that maximum number the commanders of the Japanese and Russian armies shall by common accord fix the number of such guards to be employed as small as possible, while having in view the actual requirements.

The commanders of the Japanese and Russian forces in Manchuria shall agree upon the details of the evacuation in conformity with the above principles, and shall take by common accord the measures necessary to carry out the evacuation so soon as possible, and in any case no later than the period of eighteen months.

Sub-Article to Article IX.—So soon as possible after the present treaty comes into force a commission of delimitation composed of an equal number of members is to be appointed, respectively, by the two high contracting parties, which shall on the spot mark in a permanent manner the exact boundary between the Japanese and Russian possessions on the island of Saghalien. The commission shall be bound so far as topographical considerations permit to follow the fiftieth parallel of north latitude as the boundary line, and, in case any deflections from that line at any points are found to be necessary, compensation will be made by correlative deflections at other points. It shall also be the duty of said commission to prepare a list and a description of the adjacent islands included in the cession, and, finally, the commission shall prepare and sign maps showing the boundaries of the ceded territory. The work of the commission shall be subject to the approval of the high contracting parties.

The foregoing additional articles are to be considered ratified with the ratification of the treaty of peace to which they are annexed.

Portsmouth, the fifth day of the ninth month of the thirty-eighth year of Meiji, corresponding to the twenty-third of August, 1905. (September 5, 1905.)

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed and affixed seals to the present treaty of peace.

Done at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, this fifth day of the ninth month of the thirty-eighth year of the Meiji, corresponding to the twenty-third day of August, one thousand nine hundred and five.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE PEACE AND AFTER.

DISCUSSION of the Russo-Japanese peace treaty and the gains and losses of both sides is one of the main political features of the current reviews. In the *Fortnightly*, a writer signing himself "Specto" treats of Russia's line of least resistance. He deals first with the gains of Japan, saying:

No great power for a century has achieved positive conquests of anything like the same area and strategical and economic importance. By the annexation of the Korean peninsula and the southern half of Saghalien, Japan has added, at one stroke, a hundred thousand square miles to her territory. The significance of this fact is far greater than appears on the surface. When we remember that only a seventh part of her narrow mountainous islands can be cultivated, it will be grasped at once that she has far more than doubled the available area of her soil. In comparison with an expansion of so splendid and decisive a character, the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine,—at least in its material aspect,—was a minor event of modern history. We shall better grasp the relative significance of what has happened if we compare it with an incorporation of the Spanish peninsula with France. Henceforth the Sea of Japan is inclosed by an almost continuous ring of Japanese territory. Even for an overwhelming sea power, the attempt to break that ring would be a task of almost unique difficulty and danger. Japan takes over Port Arthur as it stands, without any obligation to dismantle the defenses, and here we have the most important transfer of a fortress since Gibraltar passed into our hands. . . . And southern Manchuria may be regarded as the commercial penumbra of Japan's formal conquests,—an economic asset more valuable, in all probability, than the territory she has actually annexed.

"RUSSIA THE LEAST BEATEN POWER IN MODERN WAR."

"Specto" deplores that we insist upon regarding Russia as the most beaten power in the records of war. He argues, What European army in a similar geographical position could have been supposed capable of defeating Japan? He urges that Russia is in several ways "the least beaten power in the records of modern war."

The end of war is the destruction of the enemy's power to resist, and the Russian power to resist never was destroyed. There was no Metz (for Port Arthur did not surrender until it had placed a final victory at Liao-Yang beyond Marshal Oyama's grasp); there was no Sedan; and there was, consequently, no indemnity. In spite of an unparalleled succession of crushing

blows, the passive but endlessly enduring *morale* of the Czar's armies, the continuity and cohesion of Russian resistance, were never broken; and in every engagement they inflicted losses heavy enough to protect their retreat, to secure time for the reconstruction of their armies, and to arrest the progress of the conquerors. Prince Khilkov's management of the Siberian Railway was a feat of which any country in the world might have been proud; but his efforts would have been of little avail had Kuropatkin's retreat from Liao-Yang been less successful. The stubborn, patient Russian readiness to stand and die was like an earthwork opposed to a projectile. What was seen at Austerlitz and Jenna, at Sadowa and Sedan, was the shattering of national organizations, and the destruction upon the vanquished side of the power to resist. Nothing like this has been seen in the present struggle. Thus, at the end of nineteen months of continuous and overwhelming defeat, and with only a single-track railway to depend upon, Russia had seven hundred thousand men occupying positions no less strong with no less obstinacy. This is in its own character, perhaps, as remarkable an object-lesson in resisting power as history has yet afforded.

WITTE'S MOST IMPORTANT VICTORY.

Comment upon the terms of peace has strangely overlooked what she has retained.

She keeps the Siberian Railway through two out of the three provinces of Manchuria. She retains, above all, Harbin and the northern arm of the railway running to Vladivostok; and there is no prohibition of the double-tracking of that line. This, in point of permanent importance, is the most significant item of Mr. Witte's diplomatic salvage.

The writer lays great stress on the fact that Russia still keeps in her hands the whole of the connections which enabled her to muster seven hundred thousand men in Manchuria, and by doubling the track she is free to sustain a million men or more in that region. He remarks that the population of Russia is still increasing at a rate which gives her in every successive generation an increment exceeding the whole population of Great Britain and France!

WHERE RUSSIA MAY COMPENSATE HERSELF.

The policy which the writer suggests as Russia's line of least resistance is expansion southward in the near East. He quotes the following suggestive passage from the *Russ*:

Our policy must cease to make its exits and its entrances by the back stairs, and, throwing open once

more the front door, so long kept closed, must show its face to Europe, and contemplate once more the unfinished and neglected work that still awaits it. This can be unwelcome to none but our dear friends the Germans, who have been thoughtfully engaged in building operations meant to block up the grand façade of our own state edifice, and have for this reason provided us with all possible occupation in the back premises.

This does not, the writer asserts, mean a conflict with Germany, but it does mean a grave check upon her influence and designs in the near East. The maintenance of the Hapsburg dominions in their integrity is commended to Russian statesmanship as the cardinal principle of its policy.

A policy of supporting Austrian extension west of the Bosphorus, and Russian extension east of it, would be one in which London and Paris would be at one with Vienna and St. Petersburg. It would mean, not war, but compromise and pacific penetration. Berlin could not resist it without avowing the secret hope of pulling Austria to pieces in order to rise upon the ruins.

The first concrete result of this policy might be an autonomous Macedonia.

"Japan's Triumphant Concession."

Mr. Alfred Stead extols the Japanese achievements with great enthusiasm in the *Fortnightly*. He quotes a European sovereign who, when he heard of the "triumphant concession" which ended the peace conference, exclaimed, "Great as the Japanese have shown themselves in war, they are ten times more great in making peace." Japan withdrew her claim for indemnity, not from motives of magnanimity or generosity, but impelled by the shrewdest statesmanship. She did not allow herself to be carried away, as Bismarck was carried away, by the elation of military success into insistence on demands which make a *revanche* inevitable. Moreover, "the idea of a war for money or territory was abhorrent to the Japanese mind; all the ideas of Bushido, the instincts of the Samurai, rose up against it in horror." On a question of indemnity, simply, it would have been impossible to continue the war. But Mr. Stead goes on to divulge a deeper motive. He states that Mr. Witte was empowered to pay an indemnity to Japan; but "suddenly the Emperor of Russia withdrew from Mr. Witte the right to pay any indemnity at all. This sudden change was the direct result of the intervention of the German Emperor," who wished to prevent the fruition of the Anglo-Russian *rapprochement* growing out of the peace, and he did not wish autocracy to be broken in Russia. He was bent on weakening Russia while maintaining the autocracy, and "so clever was he that he almost succeeded in wrecking the peace conference." The Jap-

anese, aware of these designs, boldly dropped the indemnity and renounced half of Saghalien. "Overwhelmed by the sudden slackening of the Japanese attack, Witte gave way and accepted the terms at once. It was the old principle of Japanese jiu-jitsu, in which the wrestler yields suddenly in order to throw the opponent off his balance and utilize his momentum to complete his overthrow."

Story of the Portsmouth Negotiations.

In the *Contemporary Review*, Dr. Dillon tells the story of the peace negotiations. He shows the journalist's resentment at the dogged reticence of the Japanese envoys, and contrasts this with Witte's readiness to take the world into his confidence. He gives the chief honors of the peace to President Roosevelt. His first invitation to a peace conference was negated by Count Lamsdorff. Mr. Roosevelt, not to be daunted, instructed the American ambassador to put the matter before the Czar himself, and secured an affirmative answer. Dr. Dillon insists that Mr. Witte was unhampered by instructions. His plan was to get Japan, Russia, and the United States to look upon peace as virtually unattainable, and on the strength of this impression to vie in making all feasible concessions. Japan's insistence on an indemnity is put down to bluff. This is Dr. Dillon's argument:

Being a straightforward man in whose mind there is no place for reservations, Mr. Roosevelt doubtless informed his Japanese friends from the very beginning that their chance of obtaining a heavy solatium was virtually *nil*. Now, if Japan, knowing the President's strong opinion, none the less dispatched plenipotentiaries to the conference, it was only fair to argue, as Mr. Roosevelt probably argued, that she was prepared, if the worst came to the worst, to waive her claim for a large indemnity. We may go further and add that if the Mikado's government was minded from the very first to content itself with a small sum of money, it could never have seriously intended to resume hostilities in order to collect that petty amount. The notion would be preposterous. And that being so, we are forced to the conclusion that Japan was all along playing a game of bluff, and playing it so resolutely and systematically as to deceive her own people and lead them to suppose that a victorious campaign would be carried on unless peace brought in a large sum of money from Russia. President Roosevelt himself must also have been taken in.

Witte, by reducing all outstanding difficulties to a question of money, knew that a war for an indemnity would ruin Japan in the eyes of the world, and to this end he "worked" the newspaper press.

Intense Patriotism, but No Vainglory.

In the *Positivist Review*, Mr. Frederic Harrison declares that the traditional ascendancy of

Europe over Asia will be shaken to its foundation; the limitless potential trade of China will largely pass into Japanese hands; Japan will expand over Asia. He finds the striking lesson of the war in the crushing defeat of imperialist ambition. "When governments can only think imperially, their people can only think revolutionarily." Socially, the note of the war "has been a spectacle of intense patriotism combined with self-restraint, repression of vainglory, and ambition." The West has never seen, since the Roman republic, this combination of patriotism, democratic ardor, and aristocratic rule. But, proceeds Mr. Harrison—

After all, the true lesson of this war will be the religious warning it will ultimately enforce. It is a knock-down blow to the national professions of Christianity. The churches and their political allies are forever telling us that nothing but their prayers and incantations can inspire courage, duty, virtue, and honor in nations. The Gospel of Peace has much to answer for in allowing itself to become the watchword and battle-cry of tyrants, pirates, and slave-drivers. Even a hundred years ago our national hero was taught to believe that his duty toward his God was "to hate a Frenchman as he would the devil!" And the morbid fanatic who involved us in the Sudan believed himself to hold private intercourse with his Maker, and had from him personal missions unknown to the governments he served. History can show no contrast more flagrant than that of the brutal bigotry of Russia, with its ferocious fetishism like that of a Dahomey savage, its blasphemous mummeries, and its horrid execrations, as compared with the human and social religion of patriotism and family that animates Japan. No God, no heaven, no sacraments, no priests, led the Japanese soldiers to battle. To him the intricate machinery of theology is alike irrational and absurd. He fights and dies for his Mikado, his ancestors, for Bushido, for Japan.

It will be observed that Mr. Harrison refers to the national professions of Christianity, not to the religion itself.

Blamed—Are the Peacemakers!

The writer of "Musings Without Method" in *Blackwood's Magazine*, after making a number of caustic remarks about international busybodies such as William II. and Theodore I., "perfectly well equipped for the mismanagement of other people's business," says that international busybodies, like the journalists who create them, are without responsibility.

Mr. Roosevelt, for his own glory, wanted nothing but peace, peace bad or good, peace at any price. When the terms were signed at Portsmouth, N. H., his glory was complete. It matters not a jot to him whether his indiscreet energy has been successful or not. Suppose the hasty terms of peace compel in the future a yet more bloody war, he cannot be impeached.

A Spanish View of the Peace.

The *Revista Contemporanea* (Madrid) comments rather naïvely on the Russo-Japanese peace. It remarks:

How is it that the Japanese, after a year and a half of uninterrupted victories, lose everything in the treaty of peace? The answer is simple,—both nations began the war unprepared for it, Russia without her army ready, hence her disasters; Japan without having her treasury prepared. Hence, the nation already exhausted, without industry or commerce (that England and the United States have taken from her), without agriculture, without credit, thus unable to continue the war, she has had to sign anything at all, pushed by the United States, which country, seeing that pursuing the campaign might turn the tables and lose the money lent for the war, has forced everything for the good of humanity! The Americans did not think the same in despoiling Spain in the treaty of Paris! What consequences will the peace bring? It is difficult to prophesy anything, but there is to be feared the final revolutionary commotion in Russia and the launching of Japan on the road to imperialism, like the United States. This will have the advantage of conjuring up the "yellow peril," since even established nations are the victims of imperialism, and Japan will die as rapidly as she has appeared.

A JAPANESE VIEW OF THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

WRITING in the latest issue of the *Tuiyo*, (Tokio), an anonymous writer, a regular contributor to this journal evidently well informed on diplomatic questions, discusses the extension of the scope of the Anglo-Japanese alliance shortly before the publication of the text of the new treaty. Says this writer:

When the agreement concluded between England and Japan on January 30, 1902, was made public, I declared that such an alliance would precipitate war rather than consolidate the peace of the far East. According to that treaty, should either of the high contracting parties be involved in war with another power in defense of its territorial rights or special interests,

the other party is required to come to the assistance of its ally only after a third power or powers have joined in hostilities against that ally. This article I denounced as powerless to accomplish the purpose for which this agreement was concluded. When this alliance was formed, Russia's naval power was far greater than that of Japan. Russia could wage war against Japan without the assistance of a third power. It is but natural that Russia, conscious of England's disinclination to render her Eastern ally military assistance, should defy Japan's protest against her aggression in the far East. I urged the necessity of enlarging the scope of the alliance so that both parties would conduct a war in common. The events that have since happened have justified my prediction.

Thus premising his discussion, the writer nat-

urally welcomes the news of the conclusion of a new Anglo-Japanese pact, which is, in his opinion, a defensive and offensive alliance in every sense. Being insufficiently informed as to the details of the treaty, however, the writer raises several questions concerning the methods by which the high contracting parties will conduct a war in common. In the first place, he considers it very imprudent on Japan's part to assume any responsibility for sending her army to India to assist her Western ally in the event of war with Russia. Granted that Japan assumes such a responsibility, how large an army should she send to India to fulfill her duty satisfactorily? An army of fifty thousand can hardly accomplish anything effective, says this writer.

At least one hundred thousand soldiers are necessary, which would require transports of four hundred thousand tonnage. From Nagasaki to Colombo is approximately four thousand miles, which would take a voyage of forty-four days for a steamer with a speed of twelve knots. Transports carrying such an enormous number of soldiers should be escorted by warships of at least one hundred thousand tonnage, which in turn would require transports with a carrying capacity of twenty to thirty thousand tons to carry coal and provisions. The capacity of the entire merchant marine of Japan amounts to only three hundred and fifty thousand tons in rough estimate. This will be greatly increased. But however great might be the increase, it is beyond discussion that Japan cannot afford to divide four hundred and thirty thousand tons of merchant vessels for the transportation of army and provisions six thousand miles over the seas.

When England is in need of Japanese reinforcements in India, the writer warns us, the movement of China should be carefully watched, the German men-of-war at Kiao-Chau guarded, and the French squadron at Saigon provided against, while the situation in Manchuria will again demand decisive measures. Under such circumstances, concludes the writer, no sane man can dream of sparing four hundred thousand tons out of our insufficient transporting capacity for the sole purpose of assisting England in India.

In the history of diplomacy and international warfare it very seldom occurs that one party to an alliance sends its army into the dominion of the other contracting party to assist the latter in case of war. This course is especially avoided when the contracting parties are on an equal footing, for the reason that the assisting army cannot levy on the private properties belonging to the people of the assisted country without entailing many diplomatic complications after the war. It is impossible to levy on private properties without resorting to violence to a greater or lesser degree. Such violence can be connived at if the assisted country is much weaker than the assisting; otherwise it will prove a cause of enmity and bitter feeling between the two countries upon the termination of a war which they have fought



BARON TADASU HAYASHI, JAPANESE MINISTER TO ENGLAND.
(He negotiated the Anglo-Japanese alliance with Lord Lansdowne.)

in common. Consequently, the safest way for either of the contracting parties to an alliance has been to assist the other party in the event of war by sending its army to a neutral country or by attacking the enemy from other points than where the assisted party is engaging the enemy. An army separated from its native land by six thousand miles will find it impossible, in case of emergency, to strictly avoid levying on private properties, however perfect the means of transportation may be. And it is equally difficult to keep an army of a hundred thousand soldiers always sufficiently supplied from its mother country which requires twenty-two days to reach. Hence, it would be extremely dangerous for Japan to send a large army to India. The only course to avoid this danger would be to rely upon the provisions supplied by England, thus turning our army into a sort of "hired" soldiers at the sacrifice of its individuality. But such a sacrifice our soldiers will never bear, regarding it as disgrace and humiliation.

In maintaining the prestige of the Japanese army and rendering England an effective military assistance, in case she be involved in war with Russia, it would be most advisable, concludes the writer, to attack her enemy at points most convenient and nearest to Japan. If a third power or powers should come to the rescue of Russia, it would give Japan a golden opportunity to clear from the far-Eastern countries the military bases of the Continental powers of Europe, since Russia's rescuer will be either France or Germany, or the combined force of the two.

A Note of Warning from a Briton.

Sir Edmund Barrow writes in the *National Review* on the new balance of power in the far East. He recalls certain predictions of his written in September, 1893, which have been singularly verified by the process of events in the far East. On the strength of fulfilled prophecies he puts on record six warnings as to possible consequences of the Anglo-Japanese treaty: 1. The alliance may seriously compromise the interest of foreign countries in and about China, and international friction may thus be increased. 2. He despairs of the regeneration of China from within, and thinks that foreign pressure may produce an acute crisis. 3. Chinese popular feeling being more friendly to England than to any other nation, Britons should avail themselves of the opportunity, but are likely in the future to be faced with a formidable commercial and industrial competition of a fully developed China. 4. He reckons that Japan may become a dangerous rival, or even an adversary. 5. Australia may by this danger be moved to federate with the mother country, and share the cost of naval defense. 6. He strongly deprecates counting on any direct support of Japan to England in the protection of India.



IS THERE TROUBLE FOR GERMANY IN THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE?

THE MONKEY: "Look straight ahead, Michel—look straight ahead!"

(In some of the German journals there is an inclination to charge England with egging on Japan to drive Germany from her Chinese foothold.)—From *Ulk* (Berlin).

TERMS OF THE NEW TREATY.

The terms of the Anglo-Japanese pact have been made public since the above articles were

written. The treaty was signed at London on August 12, 1905, and is, in full, as follows:

PREAMBLE.

The governments of Great Britain and Japan, being desirous of replacing the agreement concluded between them on the 30th January, 1902, by fresh stipulations have agreed upon the following articles, which have for their object:

(a) The consolidation and maintenance of the general peace in the regions of eastern Asia and of India;

(b) The preservation of the common interests of all powers in China by insuring the independence and integrity of the Chinese Empire and the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations in China;

(c) The maintenance of the territorial rights of the high contracting parties in the regions of eastern Asia and of India, and the defense of their special interests in the said regions.

ARTICLE I.

It is agreed that whenever, in the opinion of either Great Britain or Japan, any of the rights and interests referred to in the preamble of this agreement are in jeopardy, the two governments will communicate with one another fully and frankly, and will consider in common the measures which should be taken to safeguard those menaced rights or interests.

ARTICLE II.

If by reason of unprovoked attack or aggressive action, wherever arising, on the part of any other power or powers either contracting party should be involved in war in defense of its territorial rights or special interests mentioned in the preamble of this agreement, the other contracting party will at once come to the assistance of its ally, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it.

ARTICLE III.

Japan possessing paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea, Great Britain recognizes the right of Japan to take such measures of guidance, control, and protection in Korea as she may deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance those interests, provided always that such measures are not contrary to the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations.

ARTICLE IV.

Great Britain having a special interest in all that concerns the security of the Indian frontier, Japan recognizes her right to take such measures in the proximity of that frontier as she may find necessary for safeguarding her Indian possessions.

ARTICLE V.

The high contracting parties agree that neither of them will, without consulting the other, enter into separate arrangements with another power to the prejudice of the objects described in the preamble of this agreement.

ARTICLE VI.

As regards the present war between Japan and Russia, Great Britain will continue to maintain strict neutrality unless some other power or powers should join in hostilities against Japan, in which case Great Britain

will come to the assistance of Japan, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with Japan.

ARTICLE VII.

The conditions under which armed assistance shall be afforded by either power to the other in the circumstances mentioned in the present agreement, and the means by which such assistance is to be made available, will be arranged by the naval and military authorities of the contracting parties, who will from time to time consult one another fully and freely upon all questions of mutual interest.

ARTICLE VIII.

The present agreement shall, subject to the provisions of Article VI., come into effect immediately after the date of its signature, and remain in force for ten years from that date.

In case neither of the high contracting parties should have notified twelve months before the expiration of

the said ten years the intention of terminating it, it shall remain binding until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the high contracting parties shall have denounced it. But if, when the date fixed for its expiration arrives, either ally is actually engaged in war, the alliance shall, *ipso facto*, continue until peace is concluded.

In faith whereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective governments, have signed this agreement and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate at London, the 12th day of August, 1905.

[L.S.]

LANSDOWNE,

His Britannic Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

[L.S.]

TADASU HAYASHI,

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan at the Court of St. James.

THE RIVAL CLAIMS TO SAGHALIEN.

WITH the recognition of Japan's right to the southern half of Saghalien, by the treaty of peace with Russia, the political status of the island before 1875 is restored. The rival claims of the two powers are discussed in several current magazine articles. In the *Booklovers Magazine*, Mr. Adachi Kinnosuké recounts the story of how Japan lost the island.

THE JAPANESE CLAIM.

In 1863, by treaty, it was decided to recognize the fiftieth degree north latitude as the boundary line of the possessions of Russia and Japan. Later, negotiations were begun for a more definite line of demarcation. In Mr. Adachi's words :

On the twenty-ninth of August of the seventh year of Meiji, 1874, at St. Petersburg, in the Asian Bureau of the Russian Foreign Department, the negotiation over the boundary line was renewed. Vice-Admiral Enomoto Buyo, who had been newly appointed to be the minister plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary to Russia, represented Nippon. Prince Gortchakov spoke for Russia. Our claim was even more modest than in the declining days of the Tokugawa Bakufu; the Nippon Government wished Russia to recognize some natural boundary line in Saghalien between Nippon and Russia. The only boundary Prince Gortchakov was inclined to recognize, however, was the La Perouse Strait. Following the instructions from home, Enomoto then demanded in exchange that Russia should recognize all of the islands of the Kurile group as Nippon territory, and also to open the Saghalien waters to the fisheries of the Nippon people. But now all was different; Russia had succeeded in planting her feet firmly upon the soil of Saghalien; and pray what was the use of her taking the trouble of removing them, and what sense or poetry was there for the famous Russian minister to assist his country in such a thankless task? But a storm arose from another direction in

the sky; it was the powerful logic of the black affairs of the Balkans which persuaded the astute diplomatist of the Czar to sign, at last, the historic Enomoto-Gortchakov treaty on the seventh of May—the twenty-fifth of April of the Russian calendar—1875. And what is called the exchange between the Kurile group and Saghalien passed into history,—the first black stain on our national honor, which has been insulting the sun-flag for over half a century. And so it was we lost Saghalien.

The Claims of Russia.

Neither Japan nor China have ever had any right to Saghalien, is the claim of the Russian journal *Slovo*, of St. Petersburg. The island was originally inhabited by the Ainos and others from the continent of Asia—from Russian Siberia. Until the end of the eighteenth century, this journal insists, there were no Japanese on the island, and, moreover, it was not until the latter half of the past century that the Japanese penetrated into the interior of the island. In 1807, Lieutenant Khvostov seized the island in the name of Russia, though that action was recognized as "arbitrary" and Khvostov suffered for it. He was arrested by the Japanese and kept a prisoner for three years. After the expedition of Kronzeuchtern and the deliverance of Golovine, Saghalien was registered on the imperial charts as belonging to Russia and to Japan. Part of the land belonged to Russia; the southern part belonged to Japan. Veniounkov had studied (or had held in his hands) a map in the school of the Japanese dragomans, a map on which the northern part of the island was marked as a Russian possession. In 1856, following the negotiations with Japan, Saghalien was recognized as not having been divided between the

Russians and the Japanese. The treaty of January 26, 1855, contained the following clause: "As for the island Karafuto (Saghalien), it will remain (as it has remained in the past) undivided between Russia and Japan." And, in other terms, the treaty recognized the ancient right of Russia to the northern portion of the island. The question of the right to the southern portion of the island was definitely settled in 1875. "Not under the influence of threats, but by common and very pacific accord between Russia and Japan." Russia gave Japan the archipelago of the Kuriles in exchange for the island of Saghalien. A few impartial Japanese writers bore witness to the fact that Saghalien had been and was debatable. The Russians, profiting by the unsettled situation of the island, have founded a local administration in the port of Alexandrovsk. They have extended their sphere of action in different directions, and have even installed themselves in the regions where they

had been forestalled by the Japanese fishermen. When the Japanese minister of foreign affairs, Count Muneroi Terashima, sent Vice-Admiral Enomoto to Russia to make terms, Russia consented—and very willingly—to cede three islands of the archipelago of the Kuriles to Japan, and to authorize the Japanese to fish near the coasts of the island. On the 7th of May, a treaty was signed between Japan and Russia. The treaty recognized the Strait of La Perouse as the frontier between Japan and Russia. Kagoa, the well-known Japanese historian of the diplomatic relations of his country, said of it: "We may console ourselves with the fact that this treaty of 1875 was the first honorable treaty signed by Japan." The facts here noted prove that the Japanese renamed the southern portion of Saghalien just when the Russians were ready to cede the western part of the island to them. "So it is folly to pretend that Japan gave up her rights because of Russian pressure."

THE SECRET OF JAPANESE NAVAL SUCCESS.

A JAPANESE officer who served under Admiral Togo has written a letter giving one explanation of Japanese naval success. This letter has been published in the *Journal de St. Petersburg*, a daily printed in French in the Russian capital. He begins by saying:

We owe the victory in the Korean Straits to the men of our fleet. Japan is an insular country, and for that reason there is more work to be found on the water than on shore. Japan has more seafaring men than landlubbers among her people. The waters along our coasts are full of fishermen. We know how to adapt ourselves and to learn, and the first fisherman in our fishing fleet is fit for active service in the navy after a six weeks' drill. We have not as many ships as our allies have, and our ships are small, but when we get right down to war the fact tells in our favor. The Japanese sailor is used to little ships; he began his career on a little ship as a fisherman. Of course, there are exceptions; but this is true, generally speaking.

The Japanese navy, this officer continues, certainly owes much to British teaching.

The British war fleet has been our model, and we have adopted English tactics and English strategy. But we owe a good deal to ourselves, because the instruction given to our sailors is infinitely superior to the instruction given to sailors in the British navy. A stoker cannot gain admission to our navy until he has followed a regular course of stoking on land. Consequently, our stokers stoke better than the stokers on British ships; and the other men of our fleet are equally excellent.

Speaking of the Japanese discipline, the letter says:

Our men love their calling; they never complain of hard work or of fatigue. At Port Arthur our sailors faced great privations, but none of them ever took to drink, although all the other sailors in port passed their time in the wine shops drinking and carousing. From the admiral to the common sailors, all are proud of their duty. The plan of discipline of our fleet is exemplary, but it has never been put into practice. No Japanese sailor in our fleet has ever been disciplined except by active service on the seas and by the regular routine drill. To the superiority of our men as men habituated to the sea and drilled for war we owe our victory at Tsushima.

After a stirring tribute to Admiral Togo and a criticism of the inferior gunnery and lack of preparation on the part of the Russians, this Japanese officer closes his letter with the following paragraph:

Few Japanese knew as much of Admiral Togo's plans as the London newspapers thought they knew. But we had full confidence in Togo. He was our most popular admiral long before the victory of Tsushima. When Port Arthur fell, he came back to Japan exhausted; he had left Japan to take command of the fleet in the flower of health and more vigorous than before the war. I saw him on board the great cruiser *Mikasa*. People were shouting "*Banzai!*" and all the bands were playing. The admiral appeared upon the bridge and saluted, the people acclaimed him, and the cruiser moved slowly out of the harbor and went below the horizon. Weeks passed and no one knew what had become of Togo; but no one asked any questions. No one doubted him. Every one in Japan had confidence in him. We all knew that he was doing his duty, and that he would be where he ought to be when the time came.

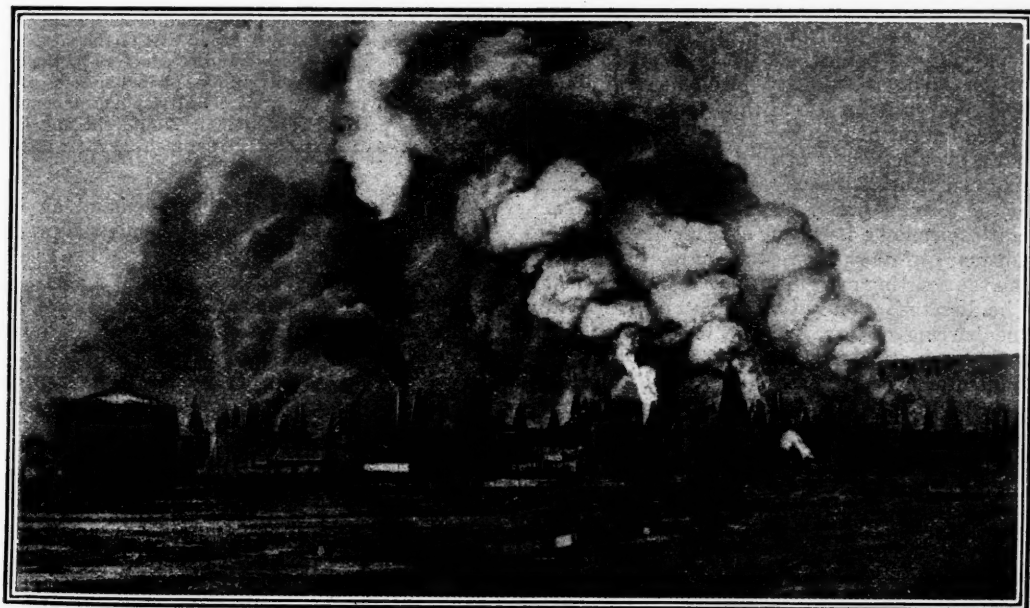
THE RIOTS IN THE RUSSIAN OIL FIELDS.

A GRAPHIC account of the recent destructive riots and sanguinary race struggle in the Caucasus, with an estimate of the losses to the oil industry in that region, is contributed to the *National Review* by the Earl of Ronaldshay. The writer was an eye-witness of most of the disorders he describes. As to the town of Baku itself, where most of the destruction of property occurred, he says :

It is a modern town with all the outward indications of a thriving prosperity. Imposing stone buildings, commodious shops with plate-glass windows, comfortable hotels, and first-class restaurants give it an air of comfort and good living by no means warranted by its physical surroundings. The country indeed is as unattractive to-day as when seen and described by the adventurous O'Donovan a quarter of a century ago. "For leagues around," he wrote at that time, "not a blade of grass is to be seen, and not even a shrub breaks the arid expanse of broken strata and scorched marl." With this description fresh in his mind, the visitor is prepared for the further information which acquaintance with the town provides, to the effect that the only fresh water to be had is obtained by distillation of the salt waters of the Caspian Sea. The name Baku signifying "a place beaten by the winds," or, as a resident acquaintance of mine more bluntly if less classically put it, "windy hole," is in itself sufficient indication of the climate which the place enjoys. Certainly Baku, with such comfort and attraction as it possesses, is before all else artificial,—the creation of money and of luxury-loving man.

Some idea of the oil magnitude in this region, —in which, it will be remembered, a great deal of English capital is invested, — may be had from a few figures. The output of the Baku oil fields in 1901, according to official statistics, amounted to 10,822,580 tons, of which 7,837,096 tons were exported. The average daily yield of the wells was 29,561 tons. Comparing these figures with the other great oil-producing centers of the world,—Pennsylvania and Texas, in the United States,—we find an output of 6,500,000 tons, and an average daily yield of the wells falling short by 11,463 tons of that of the wells on the Caspian littoral. The Earl of Ronaldshay declares that the soil about Baku was so saturated with oil that "in any piece of ground, by merely sticking an iron tube into the earth and applying a torch to the upper end, the mineral oil will burn until the tube is decomposed, which will be for a great number of years." Going further into the magnitude and importance of this industry, which has temporarily been "reduced to a state of absolute wreckage and collapse," this writer says :

The aggregate depth bored in sinking new wells and deepening old ones amounted in 1902 to little less than 46 miles, while in 1900 it actually reached the astonishing figure of 94 miles 84 yards. In the course of the year 1902, 1,895 wells on the Ansheronsk peninsula yielded 10,266,594 tons of naphtha,—an average, that is to say, of



A VIEW OF THE BURNING NAPHTHA WELLS AT BALAKHANY, NEAR BAKU.

5,417% tons per well. These figures were even larger in the previous year, a total of 1,924 wells being responsible for an output of 10,822,580% tons, of which no less than 7,837,006% tons were exported in the shape of kerosene, lubricants, naphtha residues, and raw naphtha, the residues used as fuel being responsible for the bulk of this total with a weight not far short of 5,000,000 tons. The impetus given to the industry in recent years may be judged from the fact that the 324 wells reported as yielding oil in December, 1892, had increased to 1,423 in the same month of 1902, and that the output of the year 1901 showed an increase of 10,467,742 tons on that of twenty years before. The number of wells which have become inactive has naturally risen rapidly with this largely increased production, as many as 1,273 wells having ceased yielding in 1901, as compared with 842 in the previous year and 594 in 1899. This increase in the number of dry wells has, of course, been counteracted by an increased energy in the sinking of new wells, the returns showing a total of 200 new wells sunk in 1892, 564 in 1902, and the tremendous figure of 1,010 in 1900.

There is more than \$25,000,000 of British capital invested, he tells us further.

The total losses, including the railways and shipping on the Volga and the Caspian, are esti-

mated at over \$100,000,000. On the moral side of the affair, he says :

All the atrocities for which we are accustomed to look when Russia is occupied in restoring order with the Cossack and the knout have been added to the ghastly tale of horror inseparable from every phase of Eastern civil war. The soldiers, indeed, who were expected to cope with the elements of disorder, seem as often as not to have added materially to the confusion and disaster. Like the Kurdish levies of the Sultan, who regard their royal title of Hamidiyeh in the light of a warrant for indulging in indiscriminate slaughter whenever opportunity occurs, the Cossacks seem to have waged war impartially upon friend and foe, and to have fought ruthlessly, neither asking nor giving quarter, with all who chanced to come their way. They trained artillery upon and wrecked the offices of the English manager of four large companies. In company with the Tatar insurgents, they hemmed in a band of four hundred Armenians, whom, despite their frantic requests to the governor for help, they butchered to a man. *Suaviter in modo* is no more the motto of the Russian Cossack than it is of the Eastern fanatic. Tales sickening in the intensity of their pathos have poured in from the theater of strife, which for days has been converted into a perfect maelstrom of human passion.

WHAT THE RUSSIANS THEMSELVES THINK OF THE DUMA.

THE imperial manifesto of August 19, last, calling into being a national assembly was hailed with almost universal approval by the mass of the Russian people, although occasional regrets were heard from the ultra-conservatives, deploring the passing of the good old order of things. The reactionary press became almost hysterical in its praise of the "great edict," the cynical editor of the *Novoye Vremya* (St. Petersburg) even suggesting that it be called the "Russian constitution," a suggestion repeated by some of the foreign press. The more liberal democratic elements, however, soon realized the inadequacy of the proposed assembly for correcting the existing evils in the national government. The dissatisfaction felt was due not so much to the barring of a very large proportion of the male population from the suffrage, nor to the limited scope of the assembly's powers. These defects, there is reason to hope, could be remedied gradually. It was the failure of the government to grant the most fundamental rights of citizenship, and to offer guarantees that such inalienable rights would be respected, as has been forcibly pointed out by the review *Mir Bozhi*.

According to the *Tchernaya Pochta*, N. A. Andreev, delegate to the Moscow assembly of noblemen, presented at the meeting the follow-

ing fundamental questions calling for immediate reply :

1. May the electors officially group themselves into political parties? 2. Does the prohibition against the discussion of state matters extend also to the meetings called together for choosing representatives to the national assembly? 3. Will public-spirited citizens be at liberty to convey to the rural population a clear conception of the pending reforms? 4. Would the distribution of copies of the manifesto be regarded as a breach of the law?

These questions imperatively demand an immediate answer, upon which depends the practical value of the proposed elections. "The recent acts of the administration, and its whole attitude toward the forthcoming elections, are not at all calculated to dissipate the most gloomy forebodings," is the comment of the *Mir Bozhi*. The *Russkiya Vyedomosti* wishes to know what delegates the Russian people can send to the Duma, when on the eve of the elections a well-known conservative public man like Professor Yaroshenko is subjected to administrative banishment, when on the day after the publication of the manifesto such moderate and loyal men as Professors Brandt, Gordyenko, and Milukov, and the physician Svyatlovski, are arrested as political criminals, subject to banishment to Siberia. The *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, which is a con-

servatively liberal organ, points out that the manifesto of August 19 legalizes, and hence broadens, the political life of the Russian people. It follows in logical sequence, therefore, that it is necessary to legalize also those conditions without which such political activities are quite impossible. The country can no longer be deprived of the right to gain an understanding of the new order of things created by the publication of the edict concerning the Duma. It is confronted by the necessity of making preparations for the coming elections, which, in accordance with the manifesto, must take place not later than the end of the present year, for the assembly of the popular representatives is to occur not later than January, 1906.

All this would be an impossible achievement under existing conditions, when the press is deprived of the power of freely discussing even the most vital questions in the life of the nation, when ordinances establishing a state of siege, and other emergency regulations deprive Russian citizens of the elementary rights of personal safety, when peaceful meetings which in no wise threaten to disturb the public order are forbidden and dispersed.

The *Vyedomosti* demands, therefore, that laws be enacted at once that will establish the fundamental conditions of free citizenship by abolishing the emergency laws and securing for Russian citizens the right to assemble for the discussion of state and communal affairs, and to express themselves freely on these matters in open meeting and in the press.

The organization of the Duma is also discussed at length by "Ozhigov" in the *Obrazovanié*. The event of August 19, he says, may be regarded formally as of great significance. The commission that elaborated the "reforms" which the old Suvorin, "debilitated by long-

continued supineness and fallen into dotage, calls a constitution," carried on its work in complete secrecy. Neither the names of those making up the commission, its plans, and its character, nor the material at its disposal, or even the instructions and inspirations that it received, are known.

It was suddenly born, as it were, from the head of Pallas-Athene and in a moment presented us with the results of its labors, caring little for aught else. The bureaucracy won at the first thrust, preserving its priority, and made the utmost use of its ingenuity and talents to maintain itself under the new conditions.

The powers of the Duma fall short of that completeness which should characterize a national assembly. All the methods of creative legislation remain unchanged. Furthermore, questions of foreign policy remain outside of the scope of the Duma's activities; nor is it within the power of this body to hold the ministers responsible for their acts. The property qualifications which enter as a basis in the organization of the Duma, and the division and subdivision of the electors and the elections into classes and grades, render the Duma incapable of voicing the thoughts and the will of the people. The exclusion from the elections of certain portions of the Russian citizens, who equally with the others bear the burden of taxation (the entire industrial classes, as well as the greater part of students, etc.), is not consistent with the principles of enlightened state policy. Notwithstanding these negative qualities of the enactment, "Ozhigov" expresses himself against the boycott of the Duma, which was seriously considered in the more intelligent circles in Russia. Such a boycott, he believes, would be equivalent to political suicide. "It would be a political crime to throw away this mustard seed because we wish for greater things."

"WHAT AILS RUSSIA?"—A GERMAN VIEW.

UNDER the title "What Ails Russia?" (in the *Deutsche Revue*), General von Lignitz takes a rapid survey of the history of the Russian autocracy and bureaucracy. The creation of the bureaucracy—"the curse of Russia"—the undermining of the old Russian nobility, and the discontinuance of the Zemski Sobor he sets down as the disastrous work of Peter the Great. Coming to more recent times, and to the present outlook, General von Lignitz is very decided. He says:

The attempt has repeatedly and vainly been made, on the part of well-meaning circles and individuals, in the past eighty years, to introduce a certain harmony between the ruling and the administrative powers, in

order to redress at least the grossest abuses and to bring about at least a relative justice, until the shot of Vera Sassulitch's revolver, February 5, 1878, introduced the era of political murder and widened the gap between the crown and the people.

It would apparently be a simple matter, profitable, and devoid of danger, to return to the old order of things and create a support for the tottering throne in a Zemski Sobor with limited powers and diminished activity, continues this German writer:

Did Russia consist of but the seventy million Great Russians, no essential difficulties or dangers would arise. But since Peter the Great's time it has followed the tendency of conquest,—outlets to the sea, then se-

curing these outlets by a broader stretch of hinterland; besides, the thirst for glory of the czars, the strong desire for orders and rank of people in positions of importance and on the frontiers. In the past two hundred years Russia has very greatly increased in size, but it has in the process absorbed so many heterogeneous elements, up to the present inimical to one another, that it has not gained in inward strength in a corresponding proportion. Crises must therefore prove dangerous. With Baltic statesmen and generals, with Finnish naval commanders, with Polish, Georgian, and Armenian officers, with Polish judges and physicians, it was possible to govern harmoniously during quite a long period. Since the Panslavist-Orthodox current set in, however, furthered by Prince Gortchakov, the Russian nationalist has become suspicious and jealous of the foreigners. To the detriment of the state, of the army, and of the navy, these elements, which could be

utilized to such advantage, have been more and more crowded out. The eight million Poles, thirty million Little Russians, eight million White Russians, three million Finns, two million Estonians and Letts, six million Caucasians and Armenians, six million Central Asiatics, two and one-half million Tatars, and five million Jews now feel themselves oppressed and restrained by the Great Russians. Inspired partly by an old and latent hatred, they are waiting for grave national convulsions and—for the Zemski Sobor, in order to achieve at least equal rights, which would be in consonance with their presumed higher educational attainments and their culture. Should these elements be excluded from the people's representative body or only a smaller percentage be admitted? These are, at any rate, difficult questions which must be pondered if the reforms which are longed for are not to lead to a weakening of the empire.

THE CASE FOR SWEDEN.

THE Norwegian side of the controversy over the dissolution of the Scandinavian union has been very fully presented in most American magazines. On another page of this issue of the REVIEW, in an interview with Dr. Nansen, the Norwegian position is again stated. The Swedish side, however, has not received much attention. Several articles in recent numbers of the serious reviews have emphasized the contentions of Sweden in the matter, noteworthy among which are Karl Staaff's paper in a recent number of the *North American Review* and the presentation in the *National Review* of the case by Prof. Nils Edén, of Upsala University. Mr. Staaff declares that the union between the two countries has from the very beginning labored under the "contradiction between intention and execution." The intention was that Norway in the union should be on an equality with Sweden in the union, but this purpose was never entirely carried out, and it fell short of realization chiefly with reference to the treatment of foreign affairs. The foreign affairs of Norway were managed by a Swedish minister responsible only to the Swedish Government, but "only by degrees were the eyes of the Swedes opened,—as at length they were, during the nineties of the past century,—to the untenable character of these conditions." Mr. Staaff outlines the history of the negotiations during the past two decades between the two countries, the general terms of which are beyond dispute. The difference between the two programmes of reform, he maintains, was this: "The Swedish would maintain complete unity in the management of foreign affairs, whereas the Norwegian programme introduces the principle of dualism." In her revolutionary action, says Mr. Staaff, Norway

has disregarded two great objects which some states, before all, ought to hold sacred.

One is comity between the two peoples. If the idea of drawing the two nations to each other in a spirit of unity and fraternity is to assume real shape, then they should not proceed in such a brutal manner as that in which the Norwegian revolution was accomplished. The other object is the friendly association of peoples and nations. If one dreams of a great association of peoples,—and there are many who dream thus in Norway,—even, perhaps, of a "United States" of Europe,—it is not the right way to realize such an aspiration to begin by dissolving a union of ninety years' standing between two small peoples, who truly need each other far more than Norway needs her consuls.

SWEDEN'S PATIENCE WITH NORWAY.

Professor Edén's article consists of a presentation of the case largely from an international point of view. Sweden, he declares, has always been patient, dignified, and long-suffering. Norway has been intemperate, hasty, and inconsiderate. "It was Sweden that established the union, which fact alone is sufficient to justify her claim to have a say in the matter now that its dissolution has been broached." Professor Edén is not one of those who would force Norway to remain in the union against her will. Sweden's consent should, however, have been asked before dissolution, he believes. It is a good thing for Sweden that the separation has occurred, in Professor Edén's opinion. For many years the Swedish Government has been forced to give its attention to disputes with Norway.

The whole political life of Sweden has suffered in consequence, and the union, which had been intended as a means of insuring to Sweden peace and tranquility for internal development, became, instead, as a

millstone round her neck, and proved a constant hindrance to her in the pursuit of her own domestic ends.

Professor Edén justifies the action of King Oscar in refusing his consent to the Norwegian consular-service bill, and also that monarch's refusal to accept for the time the resignation of the Norwegian ministers. Norway, he continues, did not even pay her sister country the consideration of making the attempt to dissolve the union by friendly agreement. "Norway is solely responsible for the present crisis."

Sweden has done everything that could be done within the limits of the union to meet the wishes of Norway. She has all along been conscious of her responsibility for the security and permanence of this important joint in the fabric of Europe's political system, and she has acted accordingly. Norway has never had any sense of any responsibility of the kind; from the beginning she set herself to try to loosen the bonds of union, and now she has torn them asunder. The form chosen for bringing about the rupture was an unwarranted insult to Sweden, and the rupture itself displays an utter disregard of most important Scandinavian and European interests.

After considering the demands made by Sweden in the programme presented to the King by the Riksdag, and justifying the demand for the razing of the frontier fortresses, Professor Edén closes by saying:

Swedish politicians may have committed faults in their dealings with Norway,—no Swede on looking back is prepared to deny that they have,—but the fundamental principles that have dictated their policy will stand the test to which history will subject them, and the limits which Sweden has had to set to her concessions will be recognized as having been necessary if the union was to be preserved intact. Political chicanery will not be able to gloss over facts; Sweden offered everything that could be offered, and Norway's answer was—revolution. As we have already said, Sweden has felt and has upborne the responsibility for the maintenance of the union before the bar of history; Norway has repelled that responsibility and set it at naught. This has been the characterizing feature of the present crisis. Norway has acted with an unscrupulousness which, to put it mildly, must be termed international mischievousness; and it has in the highest degree endangered the peace of Scandinavia. Sweden has suppressed her indignation in order to rescue all that remained to be rescued, not of the union, but of peace and tranquillity.

ELLEN KEY, THE "INSPIRED SWEDISH ENTHUSIAST."

IN the course of a review of a recent biographical sketch of Ellen Key the Finnish magazine *Nutid* (Helsingfors) gives a character sketch of this remarkable Swedish authoress, who is known in her own country as the "writer who always furnishes love, hope, and faith" to her readers. While entirely a self-made woman, Ellen Key is the "product of famous great generations," and her Scotch ancestry includes, among others, the great Oliver Cromwell.

Long before she had reached the heights of a leading place as a social reformer of her people, and indeed far beyond the boundaries of her country, Ellen Key had already started on her career in private. At Sundholm she began with a small Sunday-school, and lectured before the youth of the village on history, natural history, poetry, etc. Then she loaned the first books outside of a "public library," the stock of which consisted of her own school books. In the fall of 1868, she moved with her parents to Stockholm, where her father sat as a member of the Riksdag. The gift of writing became now manifest in her contributions to the periodical *Idun*, the champion of the women of Sweden. At the age of twenty she was offered the directorship of a college for women in Denmark, but declined on account of her youth and insufficient experience. Later, it was her ardent desire to found

such an institution in her own country. Events, however, upset her plans and compelled her, at the age of thirty, to earn her own living. Her father became unfortunate, and she was obliged to leave Sundholm in order to accept a situation as a teacher in Stockholm. There she worked for twenty years, not only to instruct, but also to uplift her pupils.

The narrow limits of the school were soon passed. A course of her own in history and literature for young ladies of every circle of society was inaugurated, and the number of the daily attendants soon exceeded one hundred. The institution for the education of working people also opened its doors to her, and the lectures delivered there on reform and on economic topics soon made her name famous. Beginning with an audience of thirteen, the hall, which had a capacity of more than six hundred, soon became too small for all seeking admittance.

Ellen Key carried on this work for twenty years. "Great blessing was also derived from the social circle she founded." Young working girls were invited by ladies of the upper classes "in order to bridge the distance between different classes by an amicable social intercourse." "We can apply to herself in full measure the words uttered by the individualist in her best-known work, 'Freedom of Personality,' 'The welfare and woe of others are felt to the full by myself.'"

HOW GERMANY MADE HER MERCHANT MARINE.

SOME interesting data as to the methods by which Germany has so marvelously developed her merchant marine are given in an article by Francis Delaisi, first appearing in the *Européen* (Paris) and largely reproduced in the *Italia Moderna* (Turin-Rome). From a tonnage of 982,355 in 1870 the German fleet has mounted to 1,181,525 in 1880, 1,433,413 in 1890, and 2,093,033 in 1901,—that is, in thirty years, an increase of 111 per cent. The increase is wholly in steam vessels, as sailing vessels have decreased in tonnage 16 per cent. in the last decade, and their in and out tonnage in German ports has notably fallen off. The steam tonnage in 1901 was 1,506,054, or an increase of 108 per cent. in ten years. Hamburg's fleet now surpasses that of all France. This port, which in 1850 was connected with America by a single line with a single vessel, is now served by one hundred and eighteen lines, of which seventy-one are German. Every international port in the world is reached by German steamers, and Germany runs England a close second for maritime position. No other country can show in its ports more ships flying its own colors than those with the English flag. Moreover, the German ships are largely built at home. In 1888, ships of only 24,460 tons were built in German yards, while in 1901 the figures reached 101,886, and while ships of 139,038 tonnage were bought of England, German yards sold 40,975 tons to other nations. In 1870, the North German Lloyd bought 74 per cent. of its ships in England, and now this is the percentage of home construction. Of ships of more than ten thousand tons, England has twenty-six, Germany twenty-four, the United States six, and France two.

GOVERNMENT SUBSIDIES.

The German Government encourages home construction, but not by direct subsidies. It furnishes model yards, docks and appliances, and acts as intermediary between constructors and steel-makers, offering reduced railroad rates to the latter if they give discounts to the former. This avoids the evil existing in France, where constructors buy materials, or, rather, ships, in "knock-down" condition, in England, put them together in French yards, and collect the government subsidy. Likewise, Germany refuses to pay the subsidies for mileage that French ships get for sailing from port to port loaded with ballast. The Hamburg Line receives no subvention, and the North German Lloyd none for most of its lines. The Hamburg Line receives forty-four dollars per league for its postal ser-

vice, which is the fastest service, an average of 166 hours, while French lines take 204 hours for a shorter-distance.

HOW GERMAN TRADE IS HELPED.

The German Government has the right to take over merchant vessels in time of war, without, however, making this a pretext for subsidies. These are granted only where German bottoms are trying to open up new markets for trade. When it is necessary to anchor for hours in an open port to take on a few tons of freight,—to spend one thousand marks to gain fifty,—the government aids the steamship lines. Thus, the state pays the Lloyd company 7,000,000 marks (\$1,750,000) for its lines to Australia and the far East, the German East Africa line 1,125,000 marks (\$281,250), and a considerable sum to the Levant line. However, another way is found to favor these stimulants of commerce. It is by granting low railroad freight rates on export goods to new markets,—less than half English rates for the same distances on iron, a third on cotton, and a sixth on manufactured woollens. When trade is firmly established in these markets, the rates are raised to normal. Similarly, the ocean freights are lowered to new markets, and for East Africa England thought to take advantage of these rates, and shipped her goods *via* Germany. The result was that the British India Company, which touched at Zanzibar, lost \$150,000 in one year, and ceased the service, and the natives, seeing only German ships, German sailors, and German brokers, gave their chief trade to Germany. The importation of German products climbed from £300,900 (\$1,504,500) in 1895 to £995,160 (\$4,975,800) in 1898, while English imports, after slowly increasing from £105,670 (\$528,350) to £114,217 (\$571,085), fell off to £107,205 (\$536,025).

The German Government, through the Imperial Bank, has helped to make the Hamburg and the North German Lloyd the strongest steamship companies on earth, the Cunard coming third. The government sees to it that there is constant accord between the companies, and this is so firm that they have established a common "war fund" for use in case of too strenuous foreign competition. Moreover, the German Government, contrary to French practice, makes service in the merchant marine so honorable that naval officers do not feel degraded on transferring to it. German merchant officers are assured of careers and regular promotions, and their rank in the naval reserve is raised correspondingly as they advance in the merchant service.

IS AN ANGLO-GERMAN WAR POSSIBLE?

SIR ROBERT REID, who, it is presumed, will occupy a high position in the councils of the state should a new cabinet be formed in England in the near future, contributes an article to the *Deutsche Revue* on the subject of a possible war between England and Germany.

It is one of the unholy consequences of war that it engenders other wars by sowing the seed of an implacable thirst for revenge which animates a whole people. But no such memory haunts Germany and England. These two nations have never crossed swords. Differences of opinion have now and again arisen, and, though rarely, occasions for bitter feeling, but these were ephemeral. There is no national sentiment in England against Germany. The two countries are rivals in commerce, but so are America and France England's rivals.

The case is the same in politics. Every one knows that England entertains no ambition of territorial aggrandizement in Europe, and no desire to interfere in European complications. Some critics seem to think that she pursues a policy of expansion outside of Europe. The leading English statesmen of both parties have in late years positively denied any such intention. She has, to be sure, in the last twenty-five years increased her possessions beyond the sea, but so have Germany and France. In the case of England, however, the feeling is general that further enlargement would be dangerous. The statements and actions of her statesmen show that her whole energy is directed to maintaining her present possessions. If the great size of the British fleet be pointed to, it must be borne in mind that half of the food products consumed in Great Britain are imported. She can, or at any rate does, produce only half of the necessities

of life. In case of war, an ocean passage must be kept free, on that account, as well as for the protection of her colonies, and of trade, which constitutes her support. Twenty years ago, there was only one great navy besides hers. Now four Continental nations possess, or are striving to create, powerful fleets.

In Great Britain it is every one's right to give free expression, in assemblies and in the press, to opinions regarding public affairs. The English, consequently, are used to hearing and reading a good deal of nonsense, and, knowing the insignificance of the sources, are often rather surprised at the attention such utterances at times receive outside. As an instance of this kind of stuff Sir Robert cites the fact that the English papers reported that responsible personalities in Germany believed that a sudden attack on the German fleet was being planned. On the other hand, articles appeared pointing to the fact that Germany intended to send out an army suddenly and secretly to invade England. There is little choice on the score of falsehood and absurdity between the two rumors. "It would indeed be deplorable if two nations which stand in the front rank of civilization should be incited against each other by such means."

Let me conclude by saying that although the direction of international relations is in the hands of governments, every individual citizen can do something toward awakening friendly feelings between two nations that, beside all else, are in large part of the same blood. Difficulties confront both nations; both are capable of judging deliberately how little either could gain by a dissension between them; both are proud, and with good right. Let us not suffer that irresponsible propagators of news, or irritable, often ill-informed critics, should create mischief and sow the seeds of enmity between two peoples that through tradition, history, and kinship have until now maintained peace with each other.

NELSON AND TRAFALGAR.

THE centenary of the battle of Trafalgar and of Nelson's death is the occasion of many tributes in the English magazines for October.

The October number of *Pearson's Magazine* may be called a Nelson number, for it contains no fewer than six articles relating to Nelson and Trafalgar.

The present Lord Nelson contributes a short article on Nelson's portraits. He thinks the portraits of Nelson as a youth should not be accepted as genuine, Nelson being twenty-two when the first reliable one, by Rigaud, was painted. The

next is a miniature painted before Nelson lost his arm. The best-known picture of Nelson is by Abbott, and many replicas of it in smaller size exist. Other portraits have been painted by Guzzardi, H. Singleton, Sir W. Beechey, Hoppner, and others.

Nelson Battle Pictures.

In the October *London*, also, there is a series of articles on Nelson. All who are interested in battle pictures will be glad to have these articles, if only for the sake of learning how many pic-

tures have been painted of the battles in which Nelson took part,—pictures by R. Westall, Sir William Allan, Thomas Whitcombe, A. W. Devis, W. Wyllie, G. Arnald, Stanfield, Turner, Ernest Slingeneyer, H. Singleton, Frank H. Mason, and many more. Lady Hamilton, too, comes in for a share of notice at this time, and the number of portraits of her shows how many times her portrait has been painted and how many artists have been fascinated by her beauty.

Nelson in Adversity.

In the *Westminster Review*, Percy Cross Standing writes about "Horatio Nelson, Captain's Mate," relating several anecdotes of the great admiral's boyhood and youth. Commenting on the somber aspects of Nelson's early career in the navy, this writer says:

Nelson was a lieutenant at nineteen, and a post-captain at twenty-one. Yet few can have had such frequent inducements to give up the sea as a profession, for it was the lot of few to be so villainously treated as he was during the first decade of his life as a sailor. This scandalous treatment reached its height during his stay in the *Boreas* on the West Indian station under Admiral Hughes' impossible régime. Immediately upon returning to England after her young commander's fierce passage of arms with the governor of the Leewards, the *Boreas* was kept four months at the Nore as a "slop-ship." How bitterly his proud heart throbbed under this fresh indignity is better imagined than described; and it was with an intonation of the bitterest disgust, when the ship was finally paid off, that he expressed his feelings at being able at last to "free himself from an ungrateful service." Woe to our famed "influence of sea power on history" if he had kept to that resolve! The fact was that Sir Richard Hughes stood for all that was dead and dying in our service. Nelson came to sound the trumpet-tones of new and splendid ideals for King George's navy, and for the time being he shared the fate of all reformers.



LORD NELSON.

(From the painting in St. James's Palace).

But there dawned a day when all barriers were broken down, and when both government and nation felt that he and the light of his genius alone could save them. It was realized that there was but one leader for the nation's navy, and after October 21, 1805, men felt that the end of all things was come.

Other phases of Nelson's character are well described in a group of articles contributed to the *United Service Magazine* (London).

WHAT MAY BE EXPECTED FROM THE NEW DUTCH PARLIAMENT.

THE fall of Dr. Kuyper, the Dutch premier, who had made a political shibboleth of the antithesis between Christians and freethinkers,—an opposition much less actual than theoretical,—and thus had at the same time lowered religion and done an injury to truth and honesty in the domain of politics, is not wholly to be charged to the mingling of politics and religion. In 1901, says *De Economist*, there were not a few adherents of the Left who remained at home or even voted with the Right because they feared that the ministry then in power was inclining more and more toward German state socialism. These must have learned from the

bills proposed in the late legislature regarding the insurance of the sick and of invalids that still worse was to be feared in this direction from the existing government, and at the same time that the tariff law of Harte led in a still larger measure in the direction of protection than the Pierson bill of that time. The votes of many Moderates, therefore, were once more cast for the Liberal candidates, in whom their confidence had been awakened anew, thanks not the least to the tact of the Manifest-Liberals (so called from the manifesto scattered by them during the campaign), and to the political editorials of their organ, *De Handelsblad*.

One result, then, of the fall of the Kuyper ministry is the overthrow of protectionism in Holland, an overthrow so complete that it may be confidently asserted that, in the immediate future, free trade will have to fear no more danger. The government will have to find fresh funds, to be sure, for carrying out the object of Kuyper's legacy in the matter of education, and for the solution of the difficulties connected with the communal finances. But it is absolutely sure that the new cabinet will not try to obtain this money from the tariff. After the energetic campaign carried on in The Netherlands during the last few years in favor of free trade, the voice of the electors on that question may be regarded as perfectly plain and decisive.

A first and very important result of the new grouping in Parliament will be that it will materially weaken the influence of the Social Democrats. The votes cast in Holland for the members of this party during the past five years afford much ground to expect such a result. When the outcome of the elections in 1901 was under discussion, the further growth of social democracy in Holland was regarded as probable. And there is still good reason for the same opinion. But, whatever the future may bring, notwithstanding the considerable extension of the elective franchise during the present year and the tremendous activity of the Socialists in the seventy-six districts in which they presented

candidates of their own, the increase of their votes, says the *Economist*, was considerably less than had been anticipated.

In 1897, the Social Democratic candidates received 14,312 votes in 33 districts; in 1901 they received 39,338 votes in 53 districts; and in 1905 there were cast for them 65,561 votes in 76 districts. For an exact comparison, however, only those districts should be counted in which in both election years Social Democrats competed for a seat in the legislature. When this is done we find that the total of Social Democratic votes between 1897 and 1901 rose from 13,677 to 29,438, or 112 per cent., and between 1901 and 1905 from 39,338 to 56,962, or 45 per cent. Even in 14 of the 53 election districts where both in 1901 and 1905 Social Democrats were elected, the absolute number of votes cast by Social Democrats was diminished. In Amsterdam, however, the increase of red votes (Social Democratic) was noteworthy. Of the above-mentioned increase between 1901 and 1905 of 17,624 votes, the Amsterdam districts alone furnished 6,166. In the period from 1897 to 1901, of a total increase of 15,561 the Amsterdam districts furnished only 2,203. And having lost two districts and gained but one, the Social Democrats return to the Chamber weakened by the loss of one member.

If, therefore, the now approaching legislative period shall give proof of a statesmanship directed toward a new alignment of parties, as indicated above, there would be still further reason, says the Dutch review, in conclusion, to regard the result of the June elections as a blessing for the nation.

SPAIN'S ECONOMIC ADVANCE.

THE *España Moderna* (Madrid) has been publishing a series of articles on the "New Spain," treating of that country's economic condition. In the last installment, the joint authors, J. Hogge Fort and F. V. Dwelshauvers-Dery, take up external commerce and the financial situation. Commercial statistics in Spain do not go back of 1830, but since that time foreign commerce has grown from 20 pesetas (four dollars) per inhabitant to 96.2 pesetas in 1901 and 85.27 pesetas in 1902. In the total amount there was gradual increase until 1890, and a slight falling off in the next decade, with a marked preponderance of imports over exports. This was only four million pesetas in the decade ending 1890, but one hundred and fifty million pesetas in the next decade. However, from 1895 to 1898 the imports fell off and the exports increased greatly. This was the period of the highest exchange, when the credit of the country was depreciated by the Cuban war. In 1899, the imports be-

came normal again, while the exchange grew more advantageous, increasing Spain's commercial disadvantage. From 1901 to 1903 the imports decreased and the exports increased so that in the first quarter of 1903 the excess of imports amounted to only a little over ten million pesetas, instead of five times that, as in 1901, corresponding period, and commerce took tendencies favorable to Spain.

The following table shows the movement, and also the nature, of the commerce, the figures representing millions of pesetas, the peseta being about one-fifth of a dollar:

	Imports.			Exports.		
	1894.	1897.	1901.	1894.	1897.	1901.
Raw materials.....	327	307	443	186	252	310
Alimentary products....	176	138	144	232	309	235
Manufactured articles...	181	202	312	157	190	190

Examining the commerce with various coun-

tries, that with France has fallen off, both in imports and exports, partly due to tariff, and partly to disinclination of France to sell on long time and by personal solicitation. England, falling in with Spanish customs, has largely increased her trade with Spain, and so has the United States, which now holds a place only slightly behind that of France, while in 1895 her exports to Spain were about one-third of the French.

Spanish exports are now chiefly raw materials, minerals, or alimentary products, the latter including wines, grapes, oranges, lemons, vegetables, and olive oil. The manufactured products are leather, shoes, grass products, cutlery, etc. The imports are principally coal, manufactured metals (frequently mined in Spain and manufactured in England), machinery, cotton and wool goods, and some cured fish, for, with all her coast, Spain has few fisheries.

Turning to the financial situation, it is found that while Spain has advanced greatly from the bankrupt condition of 1882, and solely by her own efforts, without recourse to foreign aid, the question of a depreciated currency and the size of the national debt are still troublesome problems. The article states that the debt increased 2,562,500,000 pesetas (\$500,000,000) from 1899 to 1902. It now amounts to \$1,600,000,000. Thanks to the policy of Minister Villaverde, ever since 1900 the receipts of the government have exceeded the expenses, whereas previously a deficit was the regular programme. Refuting the belief that Spain has no money is the testimony of the last emissions of the government bonds, in 1900 and in 1902, when the subscriptions were covered twenty-five times, with an enormous number of small subscriptions. In 1899, Minister of the Treasury Villaverde repaid

to the Bank of Spain 168,000,000 pesetas of the war debt of 1,259,000,000 pesetas, and before his fall, in July of 1900, 147,000,000 more.

The causes of the depreciation of the peseta are considered at length in the article, which says that they may all be summed up in "the financial policy of the Bank of Spain." This great institution has the monopoly of issuing bank-notes, and its privileges in this direction have been continually extended until its present limit is 2,000,000,000 pesetas, and its note circulation in 1900 was 1,625,000,000 pesetas. Instead of reducing the issue of notes and raising the rate of discount, as the interests of the country demand, it continually does the contrary, every payment of gold into the bank by the state being followed by new notes, instead of release of this coin for commercial use. Spain's foreign credit diminishes, and the stockholders of the bank get 20 to 25 per cent. per year. "The bank and the treasury struggle with each other like two monsters, trying each to devour the other, which makes unheard-of efforts to escape," said Señor Moret in 1901. All the economists, native and foreign, have pointed out the difficulty, and remedies that might be adopted were the Bank of Spain as patriotic as that of England or that of France. Ed. Théry, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, and others have drawn up measures to remedy the situation. Various bills have been drawn up by different Spanish ministries, but each has been met with a protest from the bank officials, though finally a law was passed modifying its practice in many particulars. The article brings the account of these efforts at regulation only up to the reëntance of Señor Villaverde as minister of the treasury, and a following article will estimate his recent work, now over, as he recently died.

OUR NATURALIST-PRESIDENT.

THERE have been sportsmen in the White House before now, but it is doubtful whether any of them equaled the present occupant in the training and gifts of the naturalist. Mr. George Bird Grinnell, writing in the *Country Calendar* for November, declares that Mr. Roosevelt is by temperament and inclination a naturalist, and he was a naturalist even before he was a sportsman. In this connection the statements made in Mr. Grinnell's article concerning Mr. Roosevelt's early ventures in this field are illuminating.

When Mr. Roosevelt went to Harvard, in 1876, he in-

tended to take a scientific course there and to become a naturalist. This he probably would have done except for the influence of the instructors at Cambridge. They wished him to go into the laboratory and work on low forms of invertebrate life, and to devote himself to the cutting of sections and the study of cells. They told him that the day of the field naturalist had passed, that his work had all been done, and that there was no future for a man in study of that sort. Theodore Roosevelt, however, did not care to spend his life in cutting sections and mounting them on slides and then studying them through the microscope. It seemed to him that the future should present some broader field for his activities; so with great reluctance he abandoned natural science and gave up the hope of becoming a faunal naturalist.

Nevertheless, those early years of study and observation left their mark on his character, and what their influence has been is seen in his continued interest in natural science, as shown by what he has done for it and for museums. As a boy, he went to Egypt, and while there made a collection of Egyptian birds, which he afterward gave to the National Museum, in Washington, where it now is. An important contribution to ornithology was made many years ago, when he sent to the National Museum certain Long Island specimens of seaside finches, which enabled the Committee on Nomenclature of the American Ornithologist's Union to decide as to the validity of certain alleged species and subspecies at a time when no other specimens were available on which the decision could be based.

About twenty years ago, just after Dr. C. Hart Merriam, of the Biological Survey, had published his "Mammals of the Adirondacks," Mr. Roosevelt sent him a manuscript journal accurately recording observations on the habits of certain mammals, including the previously unknown carnivorous habits of the short-tailed shrew (*Blairina*).

Naturalists everywhere will be interested in the record of Mr. Roosevelt's later contributions to nature-study:

In 1893, Mr. Roosevelt secured from the Yellowstone Park a specimen of a certain mouse originally described from Idaho, which had never been found in the Yellowstone region. During a hunt made from Thompson Falls on the Northern Pacific Railroad northward in search of white goats, Mr. Roosevelt observed certain diving habits of a rare shrew (*Neosorex navigator*), which he identified by securing a specimen.

Much more recent were the careful observations made by him in 1901 on the panther, or mountain lion, in Colorado, where he collected the skins and skulls of

no less than twelve specimens, with careful measurements. These, when turned over to the Biological Survey, enabled Dr. Merriam to establish the constancy of certain characters in this group, and formed the basis of his revision of the cougars published in December, 1901. Mr. Roosevelt's valuable contribution to the life-history of the cougar, as given in his published account of his hunt of that year, is well remembered.

In the following year, when the President went bear-hunting in Mississippi, he secured a number of bear skulls which he sent to the Biological Survey, and by them established the fact that the bear of that region is *Ursus luteolus* of Griffith, a little-known form, very different from the ordinary black bear. In the same way, the specimens collected during the hunt of last spring in Colorado have been turned over to the Biological Survey and the National Museum, where they will be of use to science.

President Roosevelt's writings on big game have given us the best accounts extant of the life and habits of the species of which he has written. All his papers on hunting, nature, and wilderness travel reveal the close observation and accurate knowledge of the naturalist, not merely as to big game, but as to birds and small mammals as well. Good examples of this are two of his most recent papers,—that on the cougar, just mentioned, and the one entitled "Wilderness Reserves," in which he has told of what he saw during his early spring visit, in 1903, to the Yellowstone National Park.

Mr. Grinnell offers this record as an explanation of the influence which moves President Roosevelt as a sportsman. The story, as he well says, gives the key to the President's interest in sport and his success in it. "A great naturalist was lost to the world," says Mr. Grinnell, "when politics and statesmanship took the place in his mind of nature-study and science."

HOW EUROPE AIDS THE UNEMPLOYED.

THE *Riforma Sociale* (Turin-Rome) gives a summary of the means adopted by various European countries to aid the unemployed, drawing the facts and figures partly from a report of the London Board of Trade and partly from a report of the work of the Humanitarian Society of Milan. Germany occupies first place in work of this nature. In that country, pecuniary aid is given either through the trade-unions, now numbering nearly fifty and having almost half a million members, or through insurance against lack of work, the latter tried locally in Cologne and Leipsic, though proposed as a national measure. Other measures are facilities for workmen traveling in search of work, such as lodging-houses and aid stations, the laborers' colonies, the labor exchanges, and municipal work yards. In the first quarter of 1904 the German trade-unions distributed over one hundred thousand dollars to "out-of-works." The insurance scheme as

tried in Cologne was hardly profitable as a commercial enterprise, as the expenses and payments made the outgo aggregate 120 per cent. of the premiums paid during the year 1903-04, while in 1900-01 they were 163 per cent., and the first year, 1896-97, they were 405 per cent. The deficit was made up from municipal funds and private philanthropy.

In 1905 there were in Germany four hundred and sixty-six houses for traveling laborers, with twenty thousand beds. The results have not been very satisfactory, especially from a moral point of view, apparently tending to increase drunkenness and gambling. Employers object to taking men from these houses, finding them none too anxious to work. In 1903 there existed thirty-four laborers' colonies, which in a year admitted 10,307 workmen. These furnish work and aim at permanent moral elevation. Remuneration in lodging, food, clothes, and money is

kept below the average wage of the locality. As one-half the inmates are ex-convicts, and the rest more or less vagabonds, the results have not been very satisfactory. It is proposed to found colonies on the plan of the one at Friedrichwilhelmsdorf, where the stay is sufficiently long to accomplish better moral results. The most interesting measure is the system of employment bureaus, including private agencies, the lodging-houses and aid stations, the trade-unions, some associations of employers, agricultural bureaus, and, most important of all, public employment bureaus. By exchanging daily bulletins of the condition of the labor market and communicating freely by telephone, these are efficient in equalizing supply and demand. In Prussia, in 1900, 68.2 per cent. of the applicants found work; in 1901, 73.2 per cent.; and in 1902, 75.2 per cent. In Württemberg, the proportion was slightly lower; in Bavaria, almost as high.

Austria provides pecuniary help, aids to traveling seekers for work, and employment bureaus. Some two hundred and fifty thousand dollars is spent on aid stations. However, only 43.125 per cent. of persons received there last year secured employment. The labor bureaus found employment for a diminishing proportion of applicants, the figures being: 1900, 42.9 per cent.; 1901, 41.3 per cent.; 1902, 35.9 per cent.; 1903, 37 per cent.

Switzerland employs all the means used in Germany, including two laborers' colonies, devoted largely to reformatory work, and requiring subventions. Employment agencies are mostly private, and number about three hundred, but official agencies at Berne, Schaffhausen, Winterthur, and Zurich have given satisfactory results, especially for unorganized labor.

France has a colony at La Chalmelle, accommodating fifty persons at a time, or two hundred and fifty during the year, admitted on

recommendation of directors of night refuges at Paris, and about 60 per cent. from 1892 to 1899 left through finding outside employment. The Nicholas Flamel Refuge, at Paris, is a sort of colony, with a sojourn limited to twenty days. By a law passed in 1904, all communes of more than ten thousand inhabitants are required to provide a free employment bureau. In 1902, thirty of these public agencies furnished work for fifty-eight thousand applicants. Forty philanthropic societies and several cities furnish work to unemployed, paying partly in money and partly in food and shelter.

Belgium has done much with insurance. It is now in force in Ghent, Brussels, Antwerp, Bruges, Liège, Mechlin, and Louvain. Insurance of organized labor has succeeded well, but that of unorganized labor has failed through lack of applicants for policies. In Ghent, for three years the premiums paid ran from 72 to 74 per cent. of the total distributed, while at Berne, in 1901, this was only 13 per cent., and at Cologne, 24 per cent. Belgium has two laborers' colonies, which are also in the nature of reformatories, and even asylums for the infirm and superannuated. They have been effective in reducing vagabondage, but not very successful in reformation. The number of voluntary applicants is diminishing.

In Italy, the savings-bank of Bologna established insurance against lack of work in 1896, but was forced to abandon the principle of mutuality, and has found that the receipts do not cover the outgo, and that fraud is frequent. In Venice, a provident society was tried for four years, but the experiment of insurance completely failed. Labor bureaus function imperfectly because of lack of interrelation. A number of trade-unions furnish subsidies to the unemployed members. The country is, however, behind others in efforts of this kind.

THE STUDENT CHRISTIAN MOVEMENT.

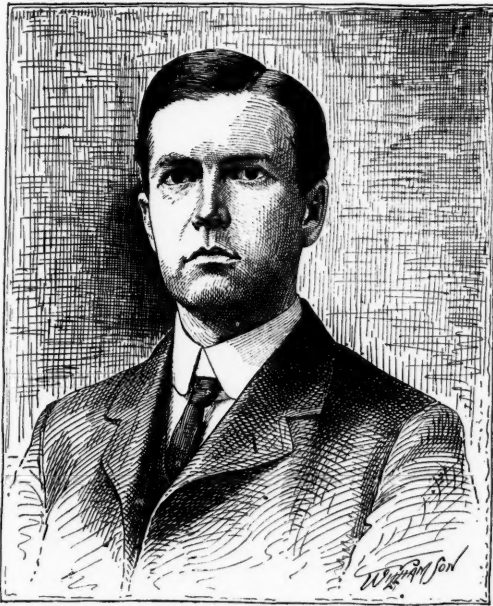
IT is an illustration of how the academic world is secluded from the greater world that a movement of the magnitude described by Mr. Walter W. Seton in the *University Review* (London) for September should be so little known. Mr. Seton says:

Those who looked into the position of this student Christian movement have satisfied themselves, whether they personally approve of its aims and methods or not, that it is a factor which can no longer be neglected. A movement which embraces in its membership throughout the world over one hundred and three thousand students and professors, which includes nearly one in

two of all the students in the North American colleges, which employs for its organization the whole time of over two hundred secretaries (all university men, mostly graduates and salaried), and which owns buildings valued at over a quarter of a million sterling,—this movement is a force which cannot be left out of the calculations of a student of academic interests.

THE BRITISH ORGANIZATION.

He traces the rise of the British student movement in the going out to China in 1884 of the Cambridge Seven, including the champion cricketer, Mr. Studd, and the stroke of the 'varsity



MR. JOHN R. MOTT.

(General secretary of the World's Student Christian Federation.)

eight, Stanley Smith. In 1886 a conference convened by Mr. Moody led to the foundation of the student volunteer movement for foreign missions in America. Next year the Student Foreign Missionary Union was launched in London, and in 1891-92 the union was reconstituted as the Student Volunteer Union of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1893 the Intercollegiate Christian Union was formed at Keswick, representing

twenty colleges. In 1894 to 1895 the affiliated unions rose to forty-five. In 1895 the name was changed to the British College Christian Union.

In the present year there are affiliated 151 unions, of which 41 are in theological colleges, with a total membership of about 4,600. The Student Volunteer Missionary Union has enrolled 2,500 members, of whom 958 have actually sailed for the mission field. The year 1904-05 has seen 200 student volunteers enrolled. At the present moment 1,000 men and women from the British colonies are in preparation for work as foreign missionaries. There is a central executive for coördinating these various student associations, with a general secretary, five traveling secretaries, a summer conference, and a monthly magazine.

THE WORLD FEDERATION.

In 1895, representatives of the movement in America, Great Britain, Germany, Scandinavia, and the foreign mission field met in conference at Wadstena Castle, in Sweden, and founded the World's Student Christian Federation, with a general secretary, Mr. J. R. Mott. The federation now embraces Christian student movements in America, Canada, Australia, Great Britain, China, Korea, Hongkong, Belgium, France, Holland, Switzerland, Germany, India, Ceylon, Japan, Scandinavia, and South Africa. The writer claims for this Christian student movement that it makes the important contribution to academic life of a practical outlook on the world. It breaks down the cloistered seclusion of the college, it brings the rising young men of all nationalities into touch with one another, and it promotes the great cause of Christian unity.

THE ECLIPSE OF THE SUN.

A PARTY to observe the eclipse of the sun on August 30, last, got together by Sir Arthur Rücker, principal of the University of London, went out on the Royal Mail steamship *Ortona*. Arrangements had been made with the Orient Company to have the steamer athwart the path of totality at the right time. This was done, and the eclipse was successfully observed. Prof. H. E. Armstrong contributes to the October number of *School* (London) a very readable account of what was seen.

THE BIRTH OF AN OUTER SUN.

Of the event itself, says Professor Armstrong, it is difficult to give a description; the glory of it is indescribable.

Let astronomers, if they will, in future speak of

eclipses; but let us poor men in the street think of an effulgence of divine glory as coming into view when the main body of the sun is blotted out by the moon. Up to the moment of totality, nothing is seen; the eye is blinded by the sun's brilliance; then, on the instant, an outer sun is born with magic haste; without click or break to announce its appearance, the corona shines forth around the velvet-black disk of the dead sun, a wondrous new light extending far out into space. The silent suddenness of its entry upon the scene is in itself marvelous. Its disappearance is equally sudden,—it is instantaneously killed by the emerging sunbeams; and perhaps the most striking aspect of the phenomenon is the impression which is produced at this stage of the marvelous illuminating power of, so to speak, the least little bit of real sun.

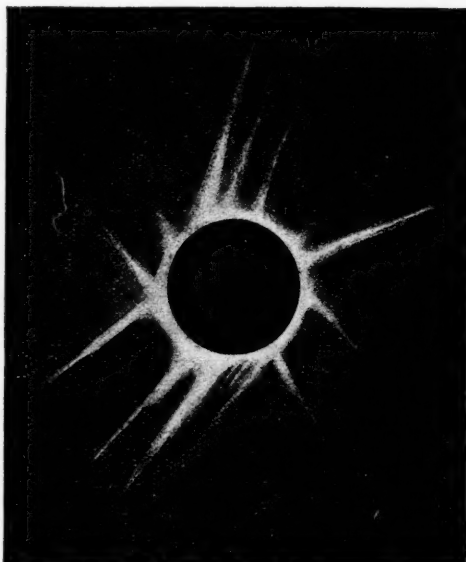
Professor Armstrong gives the following example to describe the eclipse:

Those who have played with fireworks in their youth know well the appearance of a catherine wheel near to its end,—the emergence of the black disk within the irregular whirling circle of fire, at the same time that this is crossed by lateral streamers due to the piercing of the case, so that fire no longer issues only from the central tube. Such, more or less, was the aspect of the totally eclipsed sun,—that of a huge, black-centered, silver-fire catherine wheel near to its end, but betraying no indication whatever of motion; on the contrary, one of awe-inspiring stillness and indescribable loveliness. Its illuminating effect on the present occasion was surprisingly great,—most of us, in fact, had expected to see the corona against a far darker background. Near to the black disk the light was very bright, but it diminished rapidly in intensity outward, from silver-white to an ethereal blue haze.

DAY AND NIGHT.

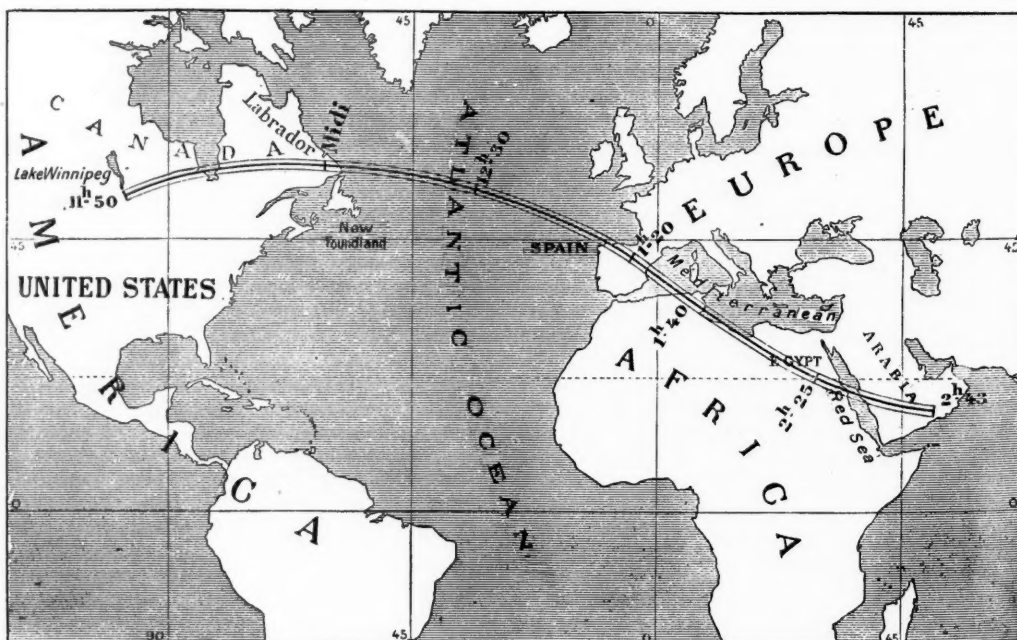
The actual eclipse lasted only three minutes and forty seconds, nor was it at any time completely dark.

Under ordinary circumstances, the change from day to night involves a general darkening, but a total eclipse of the sun produces an entirely different and more localized effect, a composite night-and-day effect. On the one hand we saw black night strike the far-distant hills and advance rapidly toward us, while on the other the day appeared to be dawning, but in weird and strangely beautiful colors. Sketching was easy during the whole period of totality, the illuminating power of the corona being apparently far greater than that of the brightest moon—and yet not a few stars were visible.



APPEARANCE OF THE SUN DURING THE ECLIPSE OF AUGUST 30, 1905.

Mlle. Renaudot gives in the November *Cosmopolitan* a most interesting account of the eclipse as seen from the monastery of Piedra, in Aragon, Spain. M. Camille Flammarion also comments on the phenomenon.



PATH OF THE ECLIPSE OF AUGUST 30, 1905.



THE KING OF ITALY VISITING THE CALABRIA EARTHQUAKE SUFFERERS.

THE BENEFITS FROM THE CALABRIAN EARTHQUAKES.

THE earthquakes in southern Italy have called attention to the need of relief for that section in more than the temporary disasters due to the cataclysm. The rather complex problem is discussed by Mario Mandalari in the *Nuova Antologia* (Turin-Rome), and by Prof. Carlo Maranelli and Antonio Monzilli in the *Italia Moderna* (Rome). Calabria has about one and one-third million inhabitants, with about sixty to the square kilometer, the sparsely settled in Italy. The inhabitants speak Grecian or Albanian dialects or an antique Italian. Many communities are isolated, without roads, schools, or markets, whether of goods or edibles. Bread is often unknown, and the people live on beans, peas, and potatoes. Stuffs lacking, they cover themselves partially with skins, like primitive savages. They tend flocks and herds in the immemorial way. All who can do so emigrate

to far countries, and the rest hide away in the mountains. As Professor Maranelli points out, their villages are built on the thin soil of the rocky hills that receive the full shock of the frequent earthquakes, and are of the least stable



IN THE PATH OF THE EARTHQUAKE.

(A view in Tiscopio, near Cosenza, one of the hundred or more Calabrian villages devastated. About one hundred and fifty people were buried under the ruins. The picture affords a good idea of the havoc made.)

and homogeneous geologic formation. The houses are built of small stones set in mud mortar, and with steep roofs,—just the architecture to suffer most from seismic shakings. In 1783 a catastrophe similar to that of September helped shake off feudal customs by destroying the castles and monasteries that held the people in slavery to fifty barons and thirteen thousand five hundred priests and monks, and causing the government to better general conditions. The recent visit of the King and his personal observation of conditions may result in needed reforms. If the disaster shake the stubbornly backward inhabitants from their

rocky perches into the safer valleys, and induce them to submit to saner regulations of building, the catastrophe will have its blessings as well as its curse, and this will help to make future visitations less fatal. Five or six such disasters to the century seem pretty certain in this region. The writers call attention also to the need of more observatories for seismic records, in which Italy is far behind Japan. Signor Monzilli urges that agriculture be made more intelligent and more productive, that taxation be made less oppressive, that capital from northern Italy be invested, and that scientific direction be accorded the region in its struggle toward progress.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF AN INCREASING POPULATION.

A STUDY of the increase in population in the different leading nations of the world is contributed to the *Hilfe*, the German periodical, by the well-known economist, Professor Hickmann, of Berlin. The tables of population of the principal civilized nations during the past century, at three different periods, are really a lesson in world-history. Following is the progress of the different powers by population in millions:

1800.	
Russia	39
France	27
Austria-Hungary	23
Germany	21
1850.	
Russia	62
France	35
Germany	35
Austria-Hungary	31
1900.	
Russia	112
United States	76
Germany	56
Austria-Hungary	45
1800.	
Italy	18
Great Britain	16
Spain	11
United States	5

There are several exceptions to the general inference from these figures,—that population constitutes an exact index of national power,—principally in the case of Great Britain, which should stand higher in the scale because she is able to add other foreign figures to her present ones. Austria-Hungary really belongs to a lower rank than France, because the unity of the dual monarchy is less certain than that of the French republic. The low standard of education of the Russian population makes the apparently overwhelming figure for that country not as predominant as might be supposed. Nevertheless, "we must admit that Russia, from 1800 to 1900,

has been a first-class power." The two most remarkable features in the table just given are, no doubt, the loss of France and the rise of the United States. At the end of the century, the three Latin nations are at the bottom of the list, because they have not been able to keep pace with the increase of other nations. During the same period, the population of the smaller nations gave the following:

1800.	
Belgium	3
Portugal	2.9
Roumania	2.7
Sweden	2.3
Holland	2.1
1850.	
Belgium	4.5
Roumania	4.2
Sweden	3.5
Portugal	3.4
Holland	3
1900.	
Belgium	6.8
Roumania	5.9
Portugal	5.3
Holland	5.2
Sweden	5.2
1800.	
Switzerland	1.7
Denmark	1
Greece9
Norway9
Servia8

Professor Hickmann points out the big step from Spain, the last of the great powers (18), to Belgium, the first of the small powers (6.8), showing that the middle states have practically ceased to exist. From these figures, it will be seen that the political influence of the Balkan states is increasing, and that of the Baltic states decreasing. Commenting on the falling off in population and influence in the Latin countries, Professor Hickmann says: "The history of the Roman peoples is the history of their mothers. France, Italy, Spain, and Portugal have lost ground because their mothers were averse to bearing children."

HUGE SCHEME TO REGULATE THE NILE.

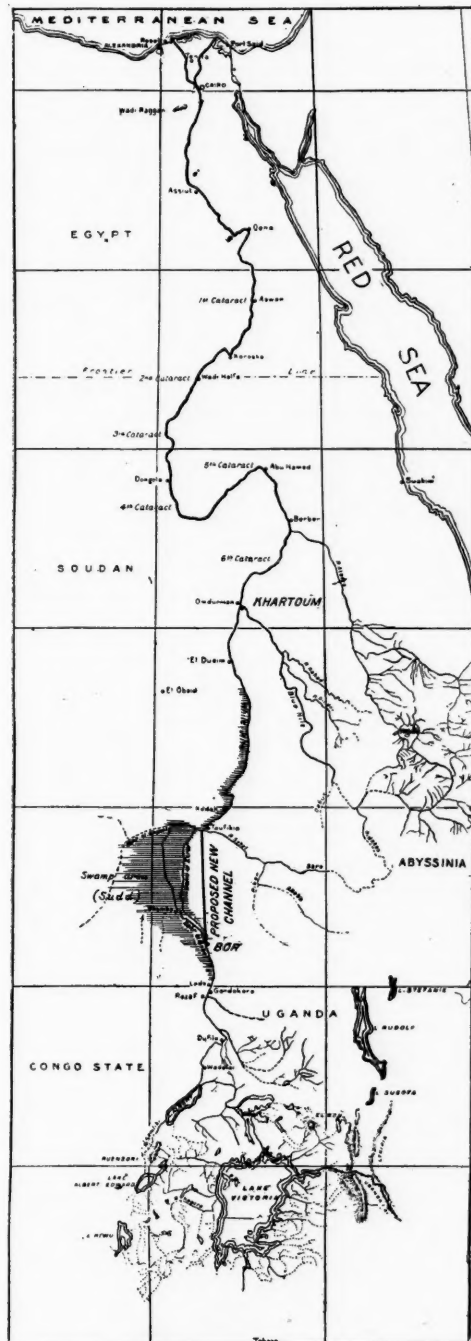
THE first place in the *Nineteenth Century* (London) for September is given to Sir William Garstin's elaborate discussion of problems of the Upper Nile. He is exercised by the fact that the White Nile contains a larger volume of water before it enters the sudd region, or vast territory composed of reedy marsh, than when it leaves it. He proposes to cut a channel between Bor and the Sobat Junction, a distance of two hundred and ten miles, sufficiently large to take the entire future summer discharge of the Upper Nile, but not large enough to take in the flood water, which may expend itself, as usual, in the marshy bend to the west. A masonry regulator at each end of this large artificial canal would secure the most perfect control over its discharge, and over that of the river. For the Blue Nile, which meets the White Nile at Khartoum, he suggests, with a view to irrigating the Sudan, one or more barrages or weirs between the hills and Khartoum.

The expenditure of money and life in carrying out these colossal schemes would necessarily be very large, but, the writer maintains, would be also highly remunerative, and bring in a marvelously quick return. He expects the following results :

Egypt will benefit by the extension of perennial irrigation throughout the entire length and breadth of its river valley from Aswan to the Mediterranean. A large portion of the Sudan will be restored to a state of prosperity far exceeding that for which it was once renowned. The rich floods of the Blue Nile and its tributary rivers will be made use of to render fertile the tracts of country watered by those streams, instead of passing through them without benefit, as is now the case. The deplorable waste of water in the dreary swamps of the White Nile will be obviated, and the waters of Lake Albert will pass down undiminished to Egypt, where they will mean wealth to the landowner and gladden the heart of the tiller of the soil. Most important of all, a control over the waters of the great river will have been secured, from its sources to the sea, which will render it possible to regulate its flow at all seasons, almost as easily and as effectually as if it were one of the great canals of the Egyptian irrigation system.

Such results are, I venture to think, well worth striving for, even if their attainment involves a large expenditure of money, and perhaps of life. The last item is, I fear, equally inevitable with the former. The extreme unhealthiness of the entire region in which these works must be carried out, and the exposure to the climate at all seasons which their execution must entail to the working staff, will, I am afraid, mean loss of health to many of those engaged upon them.

Even so, the object aimed at is worthy of such a sacrifice, and I feel sure that no such considerations will deter Englishmen from coming forward and giving their services for the attainment of such noble ends.



MAP SHOWING THE COURSE OF THE NILE.

THE CAPE TO CAIRO RAILWAY.

FROM time to time we have given the readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS the benefit of important articles relating to the progress of the Cape to Cairo Railway. Mr. J. Hartley Knight writes in the *Engineering Magazine* for October on this subject. The idea and the phrase he attributes to Sir Charles Metcalfe, and though the scheme owed much to the powerful personality of Mr. Cecil Rhodes, it has not, he says, suffered in any way through his death. The Southern Line is a good many miles beyond Kalomo, and well on the way to Rhodesia Broken Hill, the next great stage to the terminus on the southern end of Lake Tanganyika. Sir Charles Metcalfe is quoted as saying that Providence was very kind to the projectors in placing coal fields at Wankie and a rich copper region at Broken Hill.

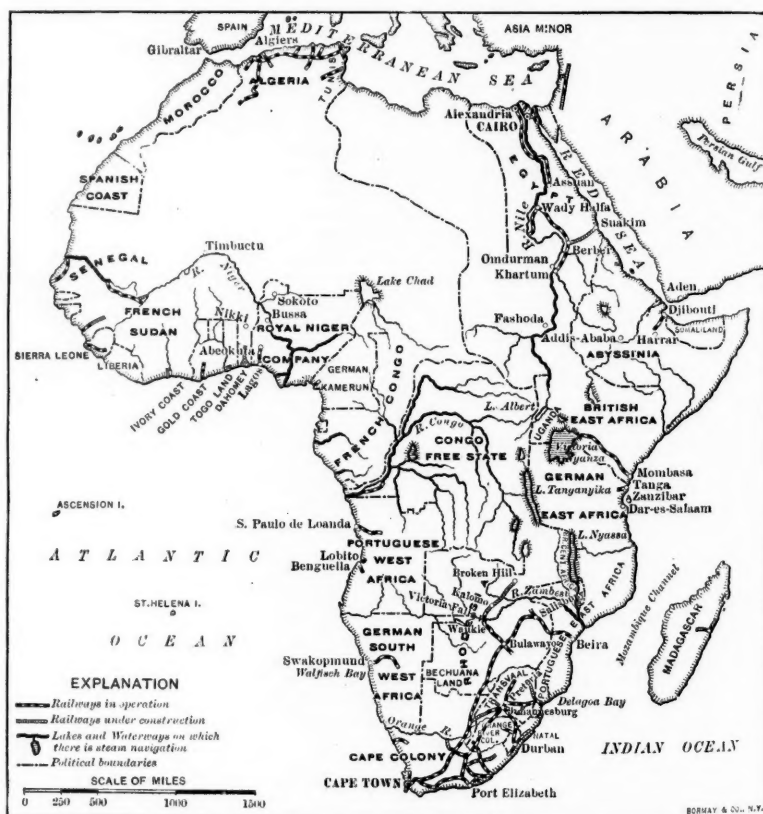
THE HIGHEST BRIDGE IN THE WORLD.

The Victoria Falls Bridge, which has just been opened by the British Association, is thus described :

It is the highest,—420 feet,—in the world, and it was built in the shortest time recorded for such a work,—viz., nineteen weeks. Sir Charles Metcalfe also claimed that no other bridge of its size and capacity had ever been built so cheaply. At the time of writing, the bridge is still incomplete, some fifty thousand rivets having yet to be hammered in before the finishing touches can be made. The bridge was designed by Sir Charles Metcalfe, consulting engineer in Africa of the Rhodesia Railways (Limited), and Mr. G. A. Hobson, M. Inst. C.E., of the firm of Sir Douglas Fox & Partners, the same company's consulting engineers in London. The work of construction was under the immediate charge of Mr. G. C. Imbault, who had with him a staff of English bridge-builders, which never exceeded twenty-five men, and about one hundred native laborers. This gentleman practically superintended the con-

struction of the bridge at Darlington, where it was made by the Cleveland Bridge & Engineering Company, and also its erection across the Zambesi. The total length of the bridge is 650 feet, of which the central span accounts for 500 feet between the pin centers on the two banks, the balance being made up of the two short spans. The great center span rises in a graceful parabolic arch to the center, the spring of which starts from the bases of the main booms. The vertical rise to the crown is 90 feet. The main span is made of twenty bays, each 25 feet long; and lateral stability was secured by a wide spread at the feet of the bridge. At the rail level the distance between girder centers is 27 feet 6 inches, whereas at the bases the width between pin centers is 50 feet. The roadway projects beyond the side girders so as to allow a clear 30 feet between parapets. The bridge is of steel, and as it is coated with gray paint it is rendered as invisible as possible against the cloud of spray,—“the smoke that sounds,” as the natives call it,—that rises from the Falls, and the undue obtrusion on the landscape which so many feared has thus been obviated.

The most difficult work was at the beginning, in securing a firm basis on the rock.



AFRICAN RAILWAYS AND WATERWAYS.

"Once we began to build the arch outward from either bank," said Mr. Hobson, "everything was plain sailing, and the work went on with the smoothness and regularity of clockwork." So carefully had the whole thing been thought out that the two ends of the bridge, which was built from both sides of the gorge simultaneously, met so exactly that there was not a difference between them of even an eighth of an inch. The actual erection of the bridge commenced in October, 1904, and the girders were joined on April 1, 1905.

An interesting feature of the construction of the railway bridge at Victoria Falls is the huge net hung below the growing bridge, for the purpose of catching workmen and tools that might drop from the bridge. While the bridge was building, the railway to Kalomo went on at the rate of a mile and a half a day. Between Kalomo and Broken Hill, a distance of two hundred and sixty miles, the only practical engineering difficulty is a bridge some seventeen hundred feet long which will have to be constructed over the river Kafue.

THE EXTENSION NORTHWARD.

Sir Charles Metcalfe said to the writer :

My own opinion is that in the future there will probably be two lines running from Broken Hill,—one going up through the Congo Free State to Lake Chad and right through French territory, coming out perhaps at Algiers or some other place on the north coast, the other coming up through German East Africa and ultimately joining up with Khartum and Cairo.

Broken Hill is 1,984 miles from Cape Town. Mr. Rhodes preferred the water route by Lake Tanganyika. Sir Charles prefers the railway line by the side, but whether Germany will permit of the latter is doubtful. As to the northern section, the writer reports little change. Lord Cromer, while approving the rail and river transit, thinks the whole route by rail commercially impossible.

His opinion of the scheme was expressed very clearly in his official report on Egypt published in April, 1904, in which he stated that while he was not prepared to say that, from a purely engineering point of view, the



VICTORIA FALLS.

(The falls are more than four hundred feet high and about a mile wide, from bank to bank, with several islands intervening.)

execution of this plan,—i.e., the establishment of a continuous railway communication from Cairo to Cape Town,—"would be absolutely impossible," he was quite confident that, in view of the very great physical difficulties which would have to be encountered, the cost of constructing any such railway would be altogether out of proportion to its utility. Proceeding, Lord Cromer said: "I am, however, given to understand that this project—if it was ever seriously entertained—has been abandoned, and that the idea of establishing communication by rail and river between Cairo and Cape Town has been substituted in its place. This is altogether a different matter. A very difficult, if not the most difficult, part of the original project is thus abandoned, for it would be no longer necessary to construct a railway across vast marshes lying, roughly, between the fifth and tenth parallels of north latitude."

PROSPECTS.

Of the Rhodesian section, the writer states that the percentage of expenditure to receipts was in 1903–04 75.8, the previous year 61.3. He concludes his optimistic sketch by saying :

When the depression under which South Africa is still laboring is removed and the waters of the Victoria Falls are "harnessed" for electrical production, it is only reasonable to assume that the Rhodesian railways will be worked at considerably less cost, and that the net revenue will be proportionately greater. At the present rate of progress, the next five years should see some wonderful developments in the African railway world, and, speaking personally, I shall be very greatly surprised indeed if by that time the Cape to Cairo Railway is not within a stone's-throw, as the saying is, of Lake Tanganyika.

A STATE LIFE-INSURANCE SYSTEM: THE NEXT STEP?

SHALL our States go into the life-insurance business? A plausible argument for such a course is set forth by Mr. Ernest Howard in the current number of the *International Quarterly* (New York). This writer maintains that "State supervision of insurance cannot be extended sufficiently to overcome the abuses and extravagances of private and competitive life insurance at their source without practically assuming a direct and detailed control of the whole business. Why not, then, State insurance instead? Many of the States are already deeply concerned in the business through the exercise of their supervisory functions.

The State specifies for private companies the mortality table to be used; it can use that table for itself. It names a rate of interest to be assumed in computing premiums and reserves; it can do this for its own as well as the guidance of other companies. It compels the attachment of a reasonable surrender value to lapsed policies and specifies how such value is to be determined; it has something to say, here and there, of how and when the surplus shall be divided;—it can simply take over these standards of general conduct and apply them to an insurance business of its own through the machinery already established for their application to private companies. The State can as well make safe investments as it can prescribe such investments for others. And the State can do some things which it cannot compel private companies to do and permit them to remain such,—it can eliminate competition, abolish solicitation through an expensive agency system, and so radically reduce insurance charges; or it can establish a business in competition with private companies, and, by applying a moderated system of solicitation by agents or advertising, effect, perhaps, a material cheapening of insurance to those who want it from the State.

HOW A STATE MIGHT ENTER THE INSURANCE FIELD.

The State of Massachusetts, for example, having a competent insurance bureau already in operation, might constitute this bureau a home office which would establish branches in every considerable city and town, all being placed in charge of officials and clerks on small salaries (the governor of the State receives \$5,000, and the justices of the Supreme Court, men of the highest professional training and ability, \$8,000 each.)

What life insurance will then be in search of is common honesty, and not brilliancy in leading speculative forays with trust funds or in acquiring business at two or three times what it is worth; and common honesty is not so uncommon as to command such salaries as have been named. If it were, we should have to despair of our civilization.

Through these branches, then, the State will offer for sale insurance in a small variety of desirable forms, including endowment or insurance with a savings-bank attachment, at the net level premium dictated by its

present or amended laws regarding mortality table and reserve, plus whatever expenses may have to be incurred. As the State holds a substantial monopoly of the business, it can sweep away all the vast expense of present-day life-insurance solicitation beyond a trifle expended in calling public attention to the desirability of taking life insurance, the kinds of policies the State has for sale, and where they can be obtained and at what price.

A COMPARISON WITH SAVINGS-BANKS.

In seeking to arrive at the approximate cost of such State insurance, Mr. Howard institutes an interesting comparison between insurance companies and savings-banks. The proposed system of State-directed insurance would be similar to the savings-banks as now conducted by disinterested trustees and salaried officials responsible to a directing State authority, on the non-competitive principle and with the element of profit excluded.

Four of the largest of the Massachusetts savings institutions are compared with four regular life insurance companies of the State which are among the soundest and most conservative old-line companies in America.

These two groups of institutions stand close together in the volume of business and magnitude of trust. They show for the year 1903:

	Aggregate assets.	Total income.	Expenses exclusive of taxes.	Per cent. of expense to income.
Four life comp's..	\$105,217,962	\$19,845,769	\$3,336,161	16.6
Four savings-bks.	114,413,722	21,215,452	201,869	00.9

From the expenses of the life companies are excluded, besides taxes and licenses, also medical fees, peculiar to the business, which would pass with it to the State. The total income is made up of returns from investments in both cases; and for the savings-banks deposits presented during the year, corresponding to the premium income of the life companies.

These two classes of institutions are very similar in a financial sense. Neither is engaged in money-making beyond the interest improvement in invested funds. Both are engaged in receiving, investing, guarding, and distributing or returning money. Both perform the function of conservator of the social economy against the time of need or loss by death. Nevertheless, the remarkable fact appears that the costs of conducting the one class of institution are nearly twenty times greater than those of the other, whether considered in relation to gross income or the assets or trust funds in charge. And it is worthy of further remark that the single expense item of salaries of officers and home-office employees of the four life companies for the year in question (\$461,292) is more than double the entire expenses of the four banks. The great salaries common to life-insurance management are usually justified on the ground of guardianship of large bodies of trust

funds; but the savings-banks in this case have the larger total assets to care for.

No time need be wasted over excuses and explanations which may be offered for this extraordinary difference in the costs of conducting two very similar trust institutions. What part of the difference legitimately or necessarily pertains to life insurance as a private and competitive enterprise will be readily understood: and as readily, also, perhaps, what part has been unnecessarily and unwarrantably imposed. But life insurance need not remain a private and competitive business, and the way is open for reducing its expenses very close to the savings-bank level. For the four life companies under consideration this would admit of a reduction in their aggregate yearly expense of some \$3,000,000. Their aggregate premium income during the year taken for illustration was a little less than \$17,000,000, which might therefore have been reduced to \$14,000,000 to carry the same amount of insurance.

Here, then, is the clear practicability of reducing the charges of insurance by from 16 to 20 per cent., without affecting in the slightest the additions to and divisions

from surplus. The gross level-premium charge for an ordinary whole-life policy at age 30 would thus be \$20 per \$1,000 at the most, instead of \$24, and other policies would come in for proportionate reductions. The magnitude of saving on such a scale, when extended over large bodies of policy-holders and for stretches of years would be incalculable. Moreover, endowment or policies with the savings-bank feature would in this case have a greatly enhanced desirability; for, as it is, such a policy involves the absurdity of turning savings from a bank of low expense ratio to an insurance company with a ratio many times higher.

The State might either take over the business of existing companies within its borders or permit them to live out the slow liquidation of existing contracts. There is, however, an alternative. The New Zealand method might be adopted, by which the State would offer insurance in open competition with private companies. It would then be a case of "the survival of the fittest."

LIFE INSURANCE AS AN ECONOMIC FACTOR.

ONE phase of American life insurance that has largely escaped attention in the present discussion of the subject is closely related to our material development as a nation. We refer to the modern insurance company's investment functions. These are well described in an article contributed to the September *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (Philadelphia) by F. C. Oviatt, the editor of the *Intelligencer*.

Suppose that one hundred thousand men are each possessed of one thousand dollars in capital ready for investment. It is obvious that where a man is limited to investments of the thousand-dollar class he is under a marked disadvantage. Often the sum required is so large that his thousand dollars counts for nothing and he is unable to avail himself of opportunities that promise good returns.

The one hundred thousand men cannot be brought together at the time when this investment offers itself, so it has to be passed over to the man of large capital, who is equipped for handling such investments. Every one who has had small sums to invest has experienced this difficulty, and has, no doubt, often asked himself how the small investor can be placed on a par with the large investor; has asked how the really choice investments which result from the development of the country can be placed to his hand in available shape.

This important economic function is admirably performed through the medium of life insurance. The company gathers twenty dollars here and fifty dollars there, a hundred dollars there and a thousand dollars in still another place. Soon a large volume of money is ready for investment. With a hundred thousand dollars, or five hundred thousand dollars, or a million dollars, the company can go into the money markets and

buy securities of the very highest class. The men who desire to borrow money for the development of business interests know that if their security is first-class life insurance companies are ready to lend them money. By this means the man who has fifty dollars to invest in a given year insures its earning the same rate of interest upon the same safe security as can be obtained by the man with a million dollars to invest.

It is hard to overestimate the value of this to the community. The investors know that the life insurance companies have money to invest, and so they offer them the securities they have to sell. Opportunities that would never be offered the individual are offered the insurance company. No other medium for the investment of savings equals that of the life insurance company. There are, of course, other forms. Many persons patronize the savings-banks. The savings-bank, however, operates in a limited territory, and is not open to persons in small and medium-size communities. The life insurance company, however, offers the same advantage to the farmer as it does to the resident of the metropolis. The man who, after he has sold his grain, his potatoes, his live stock, has a hundred dollars to invest can do it just as satisfactorily as the man who does business in the heart of the financial district of a great city. Then, again, this man who lives in an out-of-the-way place can time his life-insurance investments so as to meet the time when his money is ready to invest.

He sells his property at about the same time every year, and he can have his premiums made payable at that time. If he is delayed a month or six weeks in receiving his money, the insurance company is willing to extend his time of payment. The life insurance company is, therefore, peculiarly well fitted in dealing with all kinds of people in all sections of the country and under all circumstances. In a sentence, the company accommodates itself to the needs of its patrons. It is always ready to help a man save his money and secure its highest earning power.

HOW INSURANCE HELPS LOCAL ENTERPRISE.

Another side of this power of accumulated capital is to be found in its aid in the development of business. The investments of a life insurance company are to be found in all parts of the country. They include all kinds of safe and profitable investments. The man who desires to borrow a thousand dollars on a first mortgage finds the company ready to do business with him. The man who plans the erection of an apartment-house finds that when his plans are completed the insurance company is ready to finance the investment up to the limit of wise financiering. The country bank which has a larger capital than its citizens can purchase can sell its shares to the insurance company. The railroad company planning to improve its property can sell its bonds to the insurance company. The municipality bonding itself for park improvements, additional water-supply, and other municipal improvements requiring the use of money for a long period of years always expects a

goodly amount of its bonds to find their way into the strong-boxes of life insurance companies. So the life insurance company brings together the different persons and corporations who need to borrow large sums of money and the great multitude of individuals who have small sums to loan upon terms that are satisfactory to both. Were it not for the life insurance company, it would be difficult to collect these small sums and make them available for development purposes. There is scarce a great enterprise which has not had the use of some of the money of the small investor by reason of the wonderful development of life insurance.

The life insurance company is, of course, continually distributing funds throughout the community in the form of dividends and maturing endowments to its policy-holders and death claims to beneficiaries. In this way fifty thousand dollars may be sent in a single year into a town of five thousand inhabitants.

LIFE-INSURANCE METHODS.

CRITICISMS of the methods pursued by the "old-line" American life insurance companies are appearing on every hand. Even the most conservative writers who attempt to deal with the subject find much to censure in the extravagance into which several of the great companies have been led in the quest of "business." Thus, Mr. Louis Windmüller, of New York, an experienced observer, writing in the current *Forum*, says:

The most successful system in this country has been the "mutual," so called because policy-holders are supposed to participate in the management of the companies, and to share with the administrators they elect the profits of the business. These profits are made by investing premiums, raised or "loaded" one-third above their cost, to provide for expenses and contingencies to the best possible advantage. A large part of this money goes to the agents, who receive from 50 to 75 per cent. commission on the first year's premium, and thereafter an average of 5 per cent. per annum during the life of every policy they procure; other expenses,—salaries, fees, rent, and so on,—are larger than they need be. They aggregate 22 per cent. of the premium receipts of the American companies, against 14 per cent. of the English and 10 per cent. of the German life insurance companies.

Contingencies comprise: First, an increase of mortality. While in cases of epidemics this occurs once in a while, the tendency is in the other direction. Longevity has increased over 6 per cent. during the last fifty years; with better sanitary conditions and a more rational hygiene in other ways, it will probably continue to increase. The second contingency is the interest obtainable on investments. With a greater supply, the usage of money has been cheapened, and the companies seldom derive as much profit by their investments as they had calculated upon. It will probably continue to diminish.

When the profits of a business exceed the estimates the surplus of a stock company belongs properly to the stockholders, while in a mutual company it ought to be divided among the policy-holders, who created it.

EXTRAVAGANCE IN MANAGEMENT.

Alluding to the Equitable disclosures, Mr. Windmüller refers to the "incautious selection of investments and the unjustified extravagance" which prevail in this business. The latter charge, if not the first, has been to a great extent substantiated.

Almost all companies who have succeeded in swelling to enormous proportions a surplus made from profits on high-priced policies, and all who try to emulate their example, are guilty of such extravagance. It was engendered by the custom of retaining for improbable eventualities a larger surplus than is necessary or judicious. Instead of dividing among policy-holders from the accumulation of assets all they can spare, managers direct their actuaries to credit what dividends they please, not explaining to their policy-holders how they were earned or apportioned. The example of wanton expenditure by large and wealthy companies is followed by their small, less fortunate competitors. An assessment company with a premium income of four millions paid forty thousand dollars' salary to its president in 1904. Such needless prodigality, the suspicious concealment of the details of the business, together with a few doubted investments, were reasons for the exclusion from Germany of two large American life insurance companies. The latter fact, indicating that our authorities guard the interests of their citizens with less care than is customary abroad, together with the more recent developments, have combined to create a distrust against our companies, not alone among present policy-holders, whose confidence has been rudely shaken, but also among those who would otherwise have become policy-holders. Savings diverted from life insurance companies begin to flow into banks and real estate.

HOW CONFIDENCE MAY BE RESTORED.

A shrinkage in business similar to that which occurred in the "hard times" of the seventies is threatened at this moment, and may only be averted, in Mr. Windmüller's opinion, by the adoption of the following measures on the part of the companies:

1. Sell stocks and securities the values of which fluctuate, investing proceeds in first mortgages on improved city realty for two-thirds of its marketable value. Savings of the thrifty should not be exposed to the risk of speculation.

2. Dispose of superfluous buildings acquired in all parts of the world to advertise business, and invest

likewise. Policy-holders care for absolute safety more than for marble halls.

3. Cut down salaries and other expenses. The measures taken by the Equitable do not go far enough; retrenchment should be instituted by every other company which does not want to become the target of criticism.

Owners of mutual policies are entitled to a yearly statement of the details and results of the business in which they are interested, just as much as holders of stock in banks, railroads, and industrials. Managers who find a disclosure of these details distasteful should quit the business.

Mr. Windmüller declares that the credulity of the public has really been responsible for the extensive sale of the more costly forms of policies.

THE MORTALITY STATISTICS OF THE TWELFTH CENSUS.

A GREAT many curious as well as interesting facts are disclosed in a *resumé* contributed under the above title to the *Cleveland Medical Journal* by Dr. H. E. Handerson. The paper is concerned entirely with the mortality statistics of the twelfth census, which are limited to what is called the registration area. This includes nine only of the forty-five States,—to wit, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Vermont, and the District of Columbia,—and 153 "registration cities" not situated in the States mentioned. According to the "Abstract of the twelfth census," these are all the States and all the cities having at least 8,000 inhabitants for which the registration of deaths under local laws and ordinances was found to be sufficiently accurate for use by the census office.

The necessity for the limitation of the statistics of mortality to a comparatively small area (less than 6 per cent. of the total area of the continental United States) gives to the figures an unavoidably local color, since seven of the nine States mentioned above are found in the North Atlantic division, one only—Michigan—in the north central division, and the District of Columbia alone in the South Atlantic division. The influence of climate upon the diseases and the mortality of the country is thus excluded almost entirely from consideration. As Dr. Handerson points out, it is true that this partial view is in a measure corrected by the introduction of the vital statistics of 153 cities not located in the registration States, but scattered throughout the other grand divisions of the country. Yet this correction itself thus takes on an exclusively urban character, which again distorts the evidence of the true condition of the

divisions represented only by a few cities within their territory. The State of Louisiana, *e.g.*, is represented only by New Orleans, with a death rate of 28.9 per 1,000 inhabitants, and Shreveport (apparently the charnel-house of the United States) with the frightful mortality of 45.5 per 1,000.

While Dr. Handerson deplored the imperfections thus noticed, he was compelled to recognize their necessity under existing circumstances, and therefore employed the figures furnished with rigid caution and circumspection in their application to communities other than those from which they were derived.

Mention is made of the fact that the population included in the "registration area" of the census is 28,807,269, or about 38 per cent. of the population of the continental United States in the year 1900.

A study of the mortality statistics given under "Deaths and Death Rates from Certain Causes, for the Registration Area, 1900 and 1890," reveals the following important facts:

The death rate from pneumonia, 186.9 per 100,000 in 1890, increased in 1900 to 191.9 per 100,000.

The death rate from consumption, which in 1890 aggregated 245.4 per 100,000, shows in 1900 the flattering decrease to 190.5 per 100,000. So far as they go, these figures seem to indicate that the recent campaign of popular instruction as to the causes and treatment of the greatest scourge of our race is bearing abundant fruit in a greatly decreased mortality.

The mortality from apoplexy, 49 per 100,000 in 1890, is increased in 1900 to 66.6 per 100,000. "Manifestly the notorious strenuousness of American life," Dr. Handerson observes, "has not

yet been materially tempered by the peaceful influence of Pastor Wagner."

The mortality from diphtheria, 70.1 per 100,000 in 1890, is cut nearly in two by the reduced mortality of 35.4 in 1900.

Typhoid fever in 1890 caused the death of 46.3 persons per 100,000, figures that are happily reduced to 33.8 in 1900.

Railroad accidents in 1890 destroyed 14 in each 100,000 of our population, a rate that was reduced to 13.2 in 1900.

The mortality from cholera infantum decreased from 79.7 per 100,000 in 1890 to 47.8 in 1900,—one of the most beneficent advances recorded in the tables.

Cancer, *bête noir* of both physician and surgeon, apparently increased its mortality from 47.9 to 60 per 100,000 in 1900.

Within the limits of the registration area, Michigan leads with a general mortality of only 13.9 per 1,000 inhabitants, and the District of Columbia closes the list with the relatively high rate of 22.8 per 1,000. How very sensitive the figures are to the presence of a considerable negro contingent is well shown in the rate last mentioned. The District of Columbia, with a negro population of 31.1 per cent., exhibits a total mortality of 22.8 per 1,000, of which the white population is responsible for a rate of only 19.1 and the negro for a rate of 31 per 1,000.

The lowest general death rate recorded in the tables of the registration area is 9.1 per 1,000, which figures are credited to St. Joseph, Mo., a city of about 100,000 inhabitants. The highest rate is 45.5 per 1,000, charged to Shreveport, La., with a population of only 16,000.

Of the individual registration States, Michigan again leads the way with a mortality of 121.3 per 1,000 of children under one year of age, and 36 per 1,000 of children under five. Vermont is, at least, a close second, with figures of 122.1 for children under one year, and actually takes the first place for children under five years with a rate of 34.4 per thousand. The District of Columbia again closes the list with figures of 274.5 and 81 for the two respective ages.

Of the registration cities, Helena, Mont., with a population of 10,770, carries the banner with the minimum rate of 52.6 for children under one year of age, while Charleston, S. C., must bear the unenviable reputation of the leader in this modern slaughter of the innocents with a maximum rate of 419.5 for children of the same age. Of course, the shadow of the negro is again reflected in this terrible maximum.

Popularly, mortality statistics are supposed to be dry reading. The reader is, therefore, scarcely prepared for the statement that the demand for the third edition of "The Abstract of the Twelfth Census of the United States of 1900" has been unexpectedly great.

THE RAILROAD RATE.

THE railroad question is a close second to the insurance question in public interest at the present time. The country is looking forward to a great debate in Congress, and no opportunity to provide ammunition for the debaters is permitted to pass unimproved. One of the most important contributions to the discussion is made by Mr. Ray Stannard Baker in an article entitled "The Railroad Rate: A Study in Commercial Autocracy," which appears in the November *McClure's*. In this article Mr. Baker describes the existing rate situation in this country in its bearings on the development of different geographical sections. He shows, for example, how the dairy interests of the middle West have prospered at the expense of New York farmers, largely through the operation of freight tariffs. He also shows the tremendous importance of freight classifications in determining the success or failure of a given industry.

Mr. Baker makes it clear that the small shippers and consumers who pay the small freights

have to make up for all the low rates granted to the big shipper. In that way the great public contributes to its own exploitation by the allied railroad and industrial interests.

THE RAILROAD THE TOOL OF INDUSTRY.

The importance of the railroad in our industrial life is well defined by Mr. Baker.

It is the regulator of business. It holds the scales of destiny. It decides where cities shall be located, and how fast they shall grow; it marks out in no small degree the wheat and corn areas; it sets boundaries for the business of the coal miners of Illinois as against those of Pennsylvania; it marks definitely how far the lumber of Washington shall go; it decides whether flour shall be manufactured in Minneapolis or Buffalo, and whether the chief export business in grain shall be done at the port of New York or at the port of New Orleans.

THE WORKINGS OF RAILROAD MONOPOLY.

And the great fact arising out of these conditions, the overwhelming fact, is that these enormous powers, the control of the very instrument of business destiny,

is in the hands of a comparatively few private citizens who are handling the tool, *not to build up the nation properly*, not to do real justice as between Chicago and New York, or between Rockefeller and the independent refiner, or between wheat and flour; not to make the rate system simple and time-saving, *but to fill their own pockets* in as short a time as possible. Hill says that the State of Washington shall grow, Tuttle says that Pittsburg shall not grow, the Western railroads say that Chicago and Kansas City shall butcher the beef, Eastern roads allow Rockefeller to dominate the oil industry and become dangerously rich. It is terrible power to place in the hands of a few men,—fewer every year,—about ten men, now, sitting in Wall Street. "Railroad property is the one kind of property which determines what tribute every other kind of property shall pay to it."

When a shipper or a citizen who thinks he is wronged attempts to get relief, he must submit his case, not to an impartial tribunal, *but to his adversary in the case*. What justice can be hoped for? He is poor, he does not understand railroad conditions, he does not dare, single-handed, to make a fight for the whole community and take a chance of earning the further enmity of the railroad; his adversary is rich, employs the best legal talent, is intrenched in power. Out of hopelessness of justice has arisen the present widespread demand, voiced by President Roosevelt, for some tribunal which is at once impartial and powerful enough to do justice as between the Railroad and the Citizen. The people have asked that the Government, through the Interstate Commerce Commission, be made such a tribunal,—in other words, that in case of dispute over a rate the government of the United States shall say, once for all, what is right and reasonable. They believe that such great power is better in the hands of the Government than in the hands of individuals. This demand the railroad owners are opposing with all the ability, legal acumen, money power, and political influence that they can command.

Rate-Making by Congress.

"Some Legal Aspects of Railroad Rate-Making" is the subject of an article by the Hon. Richard Olney in the *North American Review* for October. His argument is that the power to determine the charges for transportation is the very essence of the ownership of the transportation business, since upon the exercise of this power depend the profits to get which the business is undertaken. In this respect, Mr. Olney holds that the transportation business is like any other, and that "the severance of the ownership of a business from the power to determine the returns from it, being impracticable in point of fact, is to be deemed also impossible in point of law."

The question whether government rates as prescribed are or are not confiscatory and consequently illegal is a judicial question, to be determined only by the judiciary. But Mr. Olney argues that rates reasonable when prescribed by Congress may be found unreasonable when



HON. RICHARD OLNEY.

examined by the courts, or if unreasonable when enacted, may be entirely reasonable by the time the courts are called upon to investigate them. Yet in either event the courts are limited to action upon rates already established, and are without power to decree what shall be rates for the future. Mr. Olney concludes:

As only the courts, after hearing the parties, can determine whether legislative rates are reasonable or unreasonable, if such rates are made effective upon enactment and the carrier adopts them and they are afterward adjudged unreasonable, the result is that property of the carrier is in effect taken from the carrier to bestow it upon the shipper; if such legislative rates made effective upon enactment are not adopted by the carrier and are afterward adjudged reasonable, the result is that property of the shipper is in effect taken from him to bestow upon the carrier. The same confiscatory result follows in each case, because in the one the carrier, and in the other the shipper, is without any legal redress for the wrong suffered.

These considerations would seem to settle conclusively the practical impossibility of separating the ownership of the transportation business from the power to fix the carrier's charges; of permitting private persons to be proprietors of the business, and, at the same time, vesting in government the right to dictate what shall be their charges and their returns from the business.

And, as in deciding the question of the violation of a constitutional limitation the substance of things and not the shadow is taken into account, the organic inability of the national government to own and run the national railroads of the country includes the inability to prescribe their charges, the right to fix which is an inseparable constituent of ownership.

CAN PLANTS FEEL?

THIS is the question discussed with much knowledge and insight in the *Monthly Review* (London) for September by Mr. G. Clarke Nuttall. He begins by saying that in exploring the subtle link which binds together the living plant and the living animal he finds that the hard line of demarcation which once existed between plants and animals is now broken down. There is now no break in continuity of kind, only variation of position in nature's scheme of life. The contention that plants are actually endowed with sensation has, he says, been considerably furthered of late by Professor Haberlandt's researches. He claims to have found definite organs of sense among the higher flowering plants. He deals, of course, with the purely physiological side of sensation, and leaves alone the psychical side. The sense organs possessed by plants are of four kinds,—sensitive spots, sensitive papillæ, sensitive hairs, and sensitive bristles. The sensitive spots are notably found on the tips of tendrils, those of the passion flower being proved by Charles Darwin to be exquisitely sensitive.

THE SUNDEW.

In the little carnivorous plant called the sundew, found in boggy places on the Welsh and other hills—

each leaf is covered with crimson hairs, and since each hair has a swollen head, the green leaf looks as though it were stuck all over with very fine red pins of various sizes,—perhaps some two hundred on each leaf. Now, these little tentacles, for such they are, are supremely sensitive, owing to their glandular heads being richly provided with the sensitive spots already spoken of. If by chance a flying or creeping insect alights upon a leaf, these hairs immediately begin to move and close over it, the victim meanwhile being held down by a gummy substance on the leaf until it is squeezed to death.

But the curious part of the sensitiveness of these tentacles is, that they appear to be able to gauge the quality of the object which touches them. Thus, if raindrops fall upon them they are unresponsive. If a piece of coal and a piece of beefsteak of equal weight be laid upon two leaves simultaneously, they will both begin to close at once. But in the case of the beefsteak they will take perhaps six minutes to complete the closing, and remain closed for days until they have absorbed it; while in the case of the coal they close slowly and

dubiously, and it may be three or four hours before they grasp it.

The tentacles of the sundew have actually a finer susceptibility to external stimulus than we have. It can feel a particle of fine human hair less than 1-25 of an inch in length, which if laid on the tip of the tongue would create no consciousness of its presence in us.

VENUS' FLY-TRAP.

Another carnivorous plant, however, surpasses the sundew.

Indeed, it is an open question whether in the whole of the animal world even there is a more perfectly constituted organ of touch than is found in the *dionea*, a plant popularly known as Venus' fly-trap. This plant is one of the curiosities of the plant world, and only grows native in the peat-bogs on a narrow strip of country on the east coast of North America. The peculiarity of the plant lies in its leaves, for the leaf stalk has become flattened out so as to be leaf-like, while the blade proper is edged with teeth, and has, moreover, six sharp little bristles standing straight up on the surface, three on either side of the midrib. Now, these bristles are the sense organs. Touch one ever so lightly, and the halves of the leaves on which they are placed close up together abruptly, "just like the slamming of a volume," says one observer, the midrib serving as hinge, while the teeth at the edges interlock like clasped fingers.

THE NERVOUS SYSTEM OF PLANTS.

Each of these bristles is made up of long cells filled with the jelly of life (protoplasm). After describing the sensitive plant the *Mimosa pudica*, the writer says:

It appears, then, that plants are not only sensitive to contact, and have special sense organs, but they are also able to transmit a stimulus from one part of their structure to another, as when the whole leaf of *dionea* closes because one bristle is touched, or when all the leaves of *mimosa* droop because one is stimulated. Now, the question arises as to how this stimulus travels.

His answer is, by the continuity of protoplasm, the complete inner structure of which the plant possesses hidden within its outer walls. This is the nervous system of the plant. He concludes:

In the light of these facts, it seems impossible to refuse to acknowledge plants as sentient beings, or to deny that they are capable of experiencing sensations.



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

Social and Political Questions of the Hour.

—Besides the articles on insurance to which reference is made elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, the current magazines have their usual complement of discussion and exposition in the field of applied economics. The *Atlantic Monthly* for November leads off with articles on "Immigration and the South," by Robert De Courcy Ward; "Recent Progress in the Study of Domestic Science," by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon, and "How Statistics Are Manufactured," by William H. Allen.—In *Scribner's*, Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin gives expression to "The Hope for Labor Unions," which he conceives to lie in the policy of productivity, as contrasted with the present unionist principle of a limitation of competitors. He believes that the adoption of this policy would result in higher wages and in permanent progress.—"A Music-School Settlement" is described in *Harper's* by Philip V. Mighels. This school of music for the children of New York's great East Side is one of the most hopeful agencies for social uplift now at work in the metropolis.—In the *Cosmopolitan*, Henry Watterson describes "European Society Contrasted with Ours."—In *Tom Watson's Magazine*, Joseph H. Parsons writes on "The Status of the Negro," setting forth the usual Southern view of the negro's place in the social order and citing much Northern precedent to sustain his position.—"Social Work: A New Profession," is the subject of an article by Robert A. Woods, of South End House, Boston, in the *International Journal of Ethics* for the current quarter.—Prof. John Cummings writes in the *Journal of Political Economy* (University of Chicago) of "The Chicago Teamsters' Strike: A Study in Industrial Democracy."—Municipal ownership is rapidly coming to the front, especially in some of the special quarterlies and reviews. In the *International Quarterly* (New York), "Public Ownership in New York" is discussed by Edward B. Whitney, "The Light and Water Services of New York" by ex-Commissioner Robert Grier Monroe, and "The Chicago Traction Question" by Clarence S. Darrow. Prof. Hugo R. Meyer, of the University of Chicago, contributes to the *Journal of Political Economy* a study of municipal ownership in Great Britain. His conclusions are unfavorable to experiments in this based on British experience.

Current History in the Magazines.—Aside from the article in the *Atlantic Monthly* on "Korea and Manchuria Under the New Treaty," by K. Asakawa, there is hardly a single feature in the November magazines which has any direct reference to the recent sanguinary conflict between Russia and Japan. In *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine* there is published the first of a series of papers by Harold Bolce, entitled "Japan, Our New Rival in the East." These articles are to deal with the future of our commerce with the Orient in the light of the new era for Japan, dating from the conclusion of her war with Russia. The au-

thor, Mr. Bolce, is an official of the Treasury Department at Washington, and the information that he gives in his magazine articles was obtained during a recent trip to China and Japan taken especially for the purpose.—In the *Century*, that great engineering enterprise of our government, the Panama Canal, is the subject of an extremely interesting paper by Mr. William Barclay Parsons, one of the consulting engineers. Mr. Parsons discusses the more important problems confronting the engineers at the outset, especially the Chagres River, the Culebra cut, the matter of sanitation, and the vexed question of sea-level or locks.—In the *Cosmopolitan*, the opposing views regarding the separation of church and state in France are represented by M. Clémenceau, on the part of the government, and by the Marquis de Castellane, who sets forth the orthodox, conservative view.—In *Harper's*, Mr. Henry W. Nevins continues his exposures of the African slave trade of to-day.—"Open Korea by Rail" is the subject of a well-informed paper by Homer B. Hulbert in the *World's Work*.—Dr. Jean B. Charcot gives, in *Harper's*, the second installment of his account of recent Antarctic explorations.—A French naval officer's amusing comments on the recent festivities in England in honor of the French fleet are embodied in a brief article which appears in the November number of the *Grand Magazine* (London).

Nature Notes.—Mr. Henry C. Merwin contributes to the November *Atlantic* one of his characteristic essays on "The Country in November."—The November number of the *Country Calendar* gives the results of a long series of observations by Prof. C. F. Hodge, of Clark University, on the drumming grouse, accompanied by some remarkable photographs of a grouse cock in the acts of "strutting and drumming." Professor Hodge has reared grouse from the egg in order to observe the drumming process, and he concludes that this peculiar sound called "drumming" is made solely by the bird's wings striking the feather cushions of the sides, that it is purely a mate-call, and that the reaction is definitely inherited.—"The Tax We Pay to Insects" is the title of an article contributed by Clifford Howard to *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine* which verges on the sensational. This writer declares that if the destructive insects of the world were to increase tenfold in any one year the human race would go out of existence.—Dr. H. C. McCook writes in *Harper's* on "Insect Herds and Herders," describing many curious customs of ants and other social insects.—President Roosevelt relates, in *Scribner's Magazine*, his wolf-hunting experiences in Oklahoma last spring. The President's article well bears out the characterization of him made by Mr. Grinnell in this month's *Country Calendar* and quoted on page 614 of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. In this, as in many previous instances, the President's writing shows him to be first of all a naturalist.—It has been some time since a month has

gone by without at least one of the popular magazines bringing out an article on Burbank, the California plant wizard. For this month the contribution is by Mr. Garrett P. Serviss, in the *Cosmopolitan*.

Art Topics.—Several articles this month are of architectural interest. In the series on the "Historic Palaces of Paris," in the *Century Magazine*, the German embassy, a finished example of the Empire style, is described this month by Camille Gronkowski.—In *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine*, Mr. Christian Brinton begins a series of illustrated articles on recent college architecture. In this first paper, examples from Prince-

ton and the University of Pennsylvania are described.—In "The Story of American Painting," which Mr. Charles H. Caffin is contributing to the *American Illustrated* (formerly *Leslie's Monthly*), the third paper of the series deals with the beginning of the foreign influence, and especially with the careers of Hunt, Inness, and La Farge.—H. G. Dwight contributes to *Scribner's* a charming article entitled "An Impressionist's New York," with illustrations by Walter Jack Duncan. This paper is a good illustration of the transformation in prosaic materials that is wrought by a touch of artistic imagination. It suggests comparisons between the American metropolis and certain foreign cities.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

A Moslem Grievance.—Ameer Ali, late judge of the High Court, Calcutta, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* (London), indulges in an interesting retrospect of progress in India since the Mutiny. He refers with satisfaction to progress in finance, in revenue, police, taxation, and in other respects. He makes suggestions for the future. Among these are denominational universities, where Hindus, Mohammedans, and Christians could be educated according to their own ethical standards. He does not think that home rule is within the range of practical politics, but urges that Englishmen should expect from their Hindu fellow-subjects more manly comradeship. The special grievance to which the writer refers is one bearing on the Moslem community. It rests on an English misconception and mistranslation of the word "wakf," which is taken to mean charity. It is a legal fiction whereby Mohammedan families have tied up their property and prevented it being divided and subdivided among a number of others. These family benefactions have, however, been set aside, of late, by English law courts, and the ordinary law of dividing the inheritance has been enforced. Ameer Ali asks the legislature to validate by special enactment this particular branch of the Islamic law.

Protection in Germany.—Mr. W. H. Dawson treats, in the *Contemporary Review* (London), of the German workingman and protection. He quotes freely from speeches of working-class representatives in the Reichstag and elsewhere to show the uncompromising hostility of the German labor party to protection in any form or degree. He lays stress on the fact that "this attitude is the clear and unmistakable result of reasoned conviction and of practical experience. Twenty-five years ago, the Socialists held an openness of mind on the fiscal question which would have delighted not a few wavering politicians known to us at home. No inherited preconceptions and no conviction of the inherent reasonableness of free trade prejudiced them against Prince Bismarck's departure from the old tariff." He shows how hardly the rise in the price of food has affected the already meager diet of the German people.

H. G. Wells and the Sociologists.—Dr. Crozier having challenged Mr. Wells to say what he has added to the science of sociology, Mr. Wells, writing in the *Fortnightly Review* (London) for October, answers at once, and finally, "Nothing." He goes on to repeat his thesis that the so-called science of sociology is not a science at all; that Comte, Spencer, Kidd, and Crozier

have furnished interesting intellectual experiments of extraordinarily little permanent value, and that the proper method of approach to sociological questions is the Utopian way of Plato, Moore, and Bacon. He continues: "Dr. Crozier says chiefly that I speak disrespectfully of Comte and Herbert Spencer. There is no denying I do that, and no doubt it will seem very shocking to some of your readers. But it will not continue to be shocking. Both these remarkable products of the nineteenth century justify me by example; they were ridiculously disdainful of Plato; and Herbert Spencer quite preposterously refused to read Kant. The world at large has still to realize how wordy and shallow both these writers were, and the sooner it is shocked into that realization the better. I grew up in the atmosphere of their reputations, and I have had to overcome the prejudices of my type and class in repudiating them. But who could turn repeatedly, as I had to do, from the lean pretentious emptiness of Spencer to the concrete richness, the proliferating suggestions, of Plato and not be forced at last to that admission? I shall count myself fortunate if it is given me in any measure to help rescue sociological questions, the only questions that really interest adult human beings, from the sea of abstractions, from the seas of thinnest intellectual gruel, under which the nineteenth century, so busy and preoccupied about so many things, permitted them to be submerged."

Byzantine Craftsmanship.—Mr. Edwin F. Reynolds begins, in the *Art Journal* (London) for October, a paper on Byzantine craftsmanship. He writes: "The Byzantine craftsman came of Greek blood, and his natural subtlety of discrimination supplied precisely that quality which had been lacking in the more practical and prosaic Roman character.... It is a curious irony of history that the Greek spirit should have removed that burden of Greek forms which had so long oppressed the art of Rome; and the thought naturally turns to compare that early art which raised the perfection of the Parthenon with that later art which inspired the splendor of St. Sophia. But the Byzantine Empire was more complex in racial character than a mere fusion of Greek and Roman elements. It included within its borders much of western Asia, and a tinge of Oriental feeling runs through the warp and woof of its art like a brightly colored thread."

Morocco a New Field for German Enterprise.—In the *Deutsche Rundschau*, Theodor Fischer, in an article entitled "The Economic Significance of Mo-

rocco," discusses the future possibilities of Morocco from the German point of view. He tells us that in the past five or six years Germany has been recognizing the economic significance of Morocco, and he thinks the new understanding between France and Germany promises the dawn of a new era in that country. In his view, German enterprise has a rich future in store, though the initial difficulties to be overcome in opening up the country are very considerable. With regard to the resources of Morocco, the writer thinks they will prove of immense commercial value. The sea fisheries are at present neglected, save for German enterprise. The rivers are known to contain excellent fish, but the fish is at present little used. Certain regions are most favorable to agriculture, and the writer recommends the cultivation of grain and cotton, but even there artificial irrigation would be necessary. So far, practically nothing is known of the mineral resources of Morocco. The trade statistics are not very reliable, but in the last few years it is stated that England has 48 per cent. of the trade of the country. France comes next with 21 per cent., and then Germany with 15 per cent. Germany will find it difficult to compete, with England and France. The chief advantages which England enjoys are the cotton industry and her convenient position at Gibraltar. Tea, the national drink, is also entirely in English hands. France supplies nearly all the sugar, and all German attempts with sugar have hitherto failed. Only Belgium may be said to compete with France for the trade in this commodity. The Germans have introduced woolen goods, coffee, metal wares, chemicals, paper, etc., and though German trade with Morocco is more important than the German trade with East Africa, it is as yet nothing compared with the future it may have in store.

Andrew Carnegie Suggests a New Triple Alliance.—An appeal to Frenchmen for a "Franco-English-American Trinity," by Andrew Carnegie, appears in the *Écho de Paris*. After outlining what he regards as the international missions of England and France, Mr. Carnegie says: "England peoples distant climes; France beautifies her own clime like a garden. The first ships away a prodigious quantity of articles of practical utility; the second supplies the world with a thousand and one delicate and inimitable things. England and France are the complements of each other, not the rivals. Not only is there room for both in the world, but the possibility of conflict between them is reduced to a minimum. Each fills a different sphere. Each can sincerely desire the advancement of the other. In short, the two antagonistic powers, escaping from the thrall of nightmares and hatred, perceive that it is their interest henceforth to esteem each other and to live like good neighbors. . . . The United States, as the son of England and the godson of France, holds these two countries by close bonds. Does one need to be reminded that the good-fellowship that has been established between France and England has warmly interested the American republic? There is not a student of economics, not a politician, who has not made it the object of his meditations. The bare possibility of hostilities between America and France holds, for the future, no place in our range of vision. The shades of Washington and Lafayette would turn such a picture into a crime. Whatever comes, whatever differences may arise between us, will be settled in a friendly way. . . . While France and England are

becoming reconciled, the United States and England will strengthen the bonds which unite them, thanks to the good influence of the late Lord Salisbury and Mr. Chamberlain. . . . Behold, then, the establishment of a trinity of world-dominating nations, sincerely dedicated to safeguarding a lasting peace on the most simple basis—a diversity of paths as distinct as their geographical situation and their ethical genius. You may add to that the similarity of their institutions, based, as they are, upon this identical principle,—the government of the people, for the people, and by the people. This trinity is made up of two republics without crowns and of one crowned republic. As a matter of fact, there are three sister republics existing in the shadow of hereditary dynastic fantasies sufficiently imbued with the rights and duties of the individual to have no fear of the autocratic minority's tyranny. This community of fate ought to serve them most strongly in the steady development of their fortune. And the day will come in the history of the world when a decisive influence might and should be exercised by the concerted action of the three brother peoples."

Marriage and Divorce in China.—In *La Revue*, Paul d'Enjoy concludes his articles on the marriage laws of China, which appear to resemble those of Japan very much. The last installment deals with divorce. Repudiation of the legal wife by the husband may be exercised in case of sterility, misconduct, lack of respect toward the husband's parents, slander, theft, or jealousy. A divorced woman is free to marry again. She may also appeal to the mandarin of the place against the decision if there has been any abuse of authority or violation of the law on the part of the husband, who may be punished with eighty stripes and compelled to take back his wife. Divorce by mutual consent takes place for incompatibility of temperament, and when the husband and wife both desire a separation. Optional divorce takes place when the husband or the legal wife leaves the conjugal home. The legal wife who leaves the conjugal home commits a fault which is punished by a hundred stripes. In this case the husband has the right either to take her back or to take advantage of divorce to separate from her. He may also give her in marriage to any one he pleases. The woman who marries again of her own accord, after her flight and before divorce, is punished by strangulation,—the punishment reserved for the adulteress. When it is the husband who has deserted the conjugal home, the legal wife must wait till three years have passed without news of him before she can divorce him, and this divorce must be authorized by the mandarin. The woman may then marry again. If the legal wife does not wait for three years, but also leaves the conjugal home, she receives eighty stripes, and if she marries again, a hundred stripes. Divorce is compulsory for adultery on the part of the wife, for blows inflicted by the wife on her husband, or for blows inflicted by the husband on the wife, when serious wounds or permanent injuries have been the result, such as fractures, the loss of an eye or of a limb.

The Make-Up of Drinking Water.—Few of the nutritive elements within our reach answer to the exigencies of alimmentation, and still fewer are favorably received by the digestive organs. Chemically pure water, as furnished by the most careful distillation, is

far from being an agreeable drink; and as much may be said of rain water and water boiled until it is hygienic,—the water thus prepared is vapid, even when iced. To be actually potable, says a scientific writer in the *Revue de Belgique*, the condensed product of the clouds ought to penetrate the earth and dissolve, in its passage, certain health-giving salts, notably carbonate of lime drawn from the rock. After running under ground and gathering the elements necessary to man's growth and nourishment there, water should regain the surface of the earth and take in a charge of oxygen by coming in contact with the atmospheric air. Aëration cannot be too great; it can never exceed the demands of the human body,—not to say of the animal. The normal proportion of calcareous principles may be exceeded, or saline principles may be mingled with it. In the latter case, the water loses its hygienic qualities and becomes nothing but a medicinal water. But the real danger is the contamination due to the atmosphere or to the soil through which the water runs,—soil poisoned either by decomposed animal or vegetable matter. The danger from microbes is still greater. Organic *débris* communicates a color (generally yellow or brown) and a more or less suspicious odor; but, generally speaking, infectious germs change neither the color nor the taste of the liquid. Limpid and to all appearances absolutely pure water may swarm with microbes, and when it is reduced by tests its precipitate may be more fertile than the slimy bed of a sewer. Our only safeguard against such danger is the projected optical instruments now in use and still to be used, aniline reactives, careful analyses and studied cultures of the bacilli as yet undiscovered or unrecognized. We shall be in danger until we know all the bacilli and just where to find them.

Effect of the Russo-Japanese War on Some Commercial Products.—Formosa makes Japan the most important producer of camphor in the far East, and as camphor plays a considerable part in the world's manipulation of picric acid, an article in demand for the manufacture of explosives for war, it is easy to understand why Japan holds up her production, says the *Illustration*, of Paris. Camphor is now so scarce that it can hardly be considered a commercial item. The war has raised the price of another product—the bark of the black alder, an article valued (aside from its medicinal properties) as necessary for the manufacture of smokeless powder. It is very strong and tough, and when powdered it coarsely divides into separated fibers which serve as supports for explosive matters (as hair serves in making plaster). Having been powdered in coarse grains, the fibers are soaked in picric acid in fusion, and after a few simple operations smokeless powder is produced. Naturally, the Russians and the Japanese have bought up all the black alder bark within reach, and Austria is now the only place in which it is possible to procure it at a price within reach of the ordinary consumer.

Disproving an Accepted Theory.—The *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) mentions in a scientific note an experiment by Lefèvre which goes against the accepted belief that carbon dioxide is essential to the growth of green plants. He has succeeded perfectly in growing water cress under a bell in atmosphere and soil absolutely devoid of carbon dioxide, but furnished with suitable hydro-carbonate substances.

Swiss Alcohol Monopoly Reduces Drinking.

The government monopoly of the liquor traffic in Switzerland has met the wishes of the legislators, says the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence). The consumption of alcohol has been reduced from 6.27 liters to about four liters per head. Ten per cent. of the net profit of the monopoly is given to the cantons, provided they devote it to measures repressive of drunkenness. The cantons have been so zealous in reform that they have spent this tithe and more in the work.

A Useful New Scientific Instrument.—In the popular Spanish magazine *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) is a description of a most useful new scientific instrument invented by Prof. Aurelio de Gasparis, of the University of Naples, together with curious photographs of live insects obtained by its aid. The instrument, called a bioscope, might be likened to a telescope applied to minute objects. It is a microscope of great focal distance. It consists of a tube inclosing a system of objectives absolutely free from spheroidal aberration, provided with an eye-piece of extensive field and a camera lucida for drawing observed objects. There is also a system of measuring-scales. At a distance of fifty centimeters (nineteen inches) the instrument gives an object the appearance of one hundred and forty-four times its real surface. Through it one may observe the actions of flies and spiders in their deadly struggles, the wounds inflicted in ants' battles, and the workings of the internal organs of insects. The bioscope is adapted, also, to physicians' use in examining the larynx, the ears, or other faintly illuminated cavities, making more accurate diagnoses possible.

The Average Heights of Europeans.—According to a report of the anthropometric commission of the British Medical Association, as set forth in the *Illustration*, of Paris, following are the average heights of the different European peoples. The meter, it will be remembered, is equal to thirty-nine inches. English and Norwegian, 1.70 meters; Danish and Hollanders, 1.67 meters; Swiss, Russians, Belgians, 1.66 meters; Germans, 1.66 meters; Italians, Spanish, French, 1.65 meters; Hungarians, 1.649 meters.

A New Treatment for Broken Bones.—Dr. J. L. Championnière, to whom the world is indebted for an entirely new method of setting broken bones, recently declared: "I have proved that the ancient principle of immobility in fractures is wrong. Bones do not escape the law common to all the elements of the human organism. Despite their rigidity, they need movement, and when broken, if set, they must have movement to reach the maximum of vitality demanded for their recovery. After an experience of a quarter of a century, Dr. Championnière, says Henri de Parville, writing in the *Annales*, has discovered another and a better way, comprising a certain amount of mobility of the fracture with a very precisely ordered and special massage, quite unlike the maneuvers known as "massage" by professional masseurs. The massage recommended is very gentle, very progressive, and very systematic, and its effect is not painful or exciting, but anæsthetic. Combined with methodical movement of the broken bones, it brings about several very different but very beneficial results, notably, gain in time in the formation of tissue, freedom from symptoms of atrophy, and a notable lessening of pain. To resume, the special benefits

noted by the discoverer of this method are,—first, a very considerable abbreviation of the duration of time required for the healing of the lesion or lesions, and a rapid suppression of pain, even when the fracture involves the joints of the elbow, the superior and inferior fractures of the humerus, the majority of fractures of the radius, fracture of the two bones of the forearm, of all the bones of the hands and feet, and also fractures of the clavicles, scapula, femur, knee, etc. The discovery is important by the fact that it is of interest to one-fourth of the total number of invalids demanding treatment by doctors, one-fourth being the proportion of persons suffering from fractures, compound or otherwise.

Proposes an Art Exposition in Classic Rome.—The *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) has a brief article, signed "Faoldo," proposing an exposition in Rome in 1911, coinciding with the inauguration of the colossal monument to Victor Emmanuel II., so many years in building. The writer says Rome could not hope to excel in a commercial exposition, but should make one purely artistic. The site, he affirms, should include the Forum, the Colosseum, the Palatine Hill, the Circus Maximus, the Baths of Caracalla, and the Aventine Hill as far as St. Paul's Gate. Vineyards and orchards on the Aventine should give way to gardens surrounding the palaces for modern painting and sculpture. The cloisters of the churches of St. Saba, St. Alessio, and St. Sabina would serve for sacred art. Galleries for ancient art should rise on the Aventine, with terraces looking on the Tiber and the Alban Hills. All structures should bear the highest artistic impress and be in keeping with their classic surroundings. Thus, it would be fitting to have a monumental portal to the Aventine, a boulevard from the Arch of Constantine and the Circus Maximus, and another from the Circus to the Catacombs and the Appian tombs, touching the Baths of Caracalla. Rightly carried out, such landscape gardening in such surroundings would remain forever to enhance the attraction they have for all the world. Two things are necessary, the writer says, to make it feasible,—forty million francs and a genius. The money might be raised, in view of the almost certain returns from tourist visits. The genius is harder to find, but not impossible.

The Care of Deaf-Mutes in Europe.—In an article in the *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) by Manuel Carretaro it is stated that of 10,880 deaf-mutes in Spain only 414 are receiving instruction, the other ten thousand being left in complete idiocy. There are only 371 blind being educated. Nevertheless, it was a Spanish Benedictine monk, Pedro Ponce de Leon, who died in 1584, who first successfully taught deaf-mutes, and his successor, Juan Pablo Bonet, published the first book on the subject, in 1620. From a table given in this article it is shown that Germany has the most institutions for these unfortunates, 96, with the United States next,

with 73, and France third, with 70. The United States has nearly twice as many pupils as Germany, 8,372 to 4,133, and has 606 instructors, as against Germany's 563. In the number of deaf-mutes in proportion to the population, Switzerland leads greatly, having 24.52 per 10,000, while the other countries follow thus: Austria, 13.45; Sweden, 11.80; Russia, 9.90; Norway, 9.81; Germany, 9.66; Ireland, 8.25; Italy, 7.34; Spain, 6.46; France, 6.26; Denmark, 6.20; England, 5.75, and Belgium, 4.39.

Patriotism in French Schools.—This subject is considered at length by Mr. Georges Goyau in two successive numbers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He tells how patriotism is regularly taught in the German schools. Two or three times a week there is a lesson in "Heimatkunde." It is not a lesson in geography or in history, and yet it is a lesson in both, and something more. The German school is national by tradition. In Japan, England, and the United States, patriotism as a school subject is a novelty of recent years. According to Paul Bert and Jules Ferry, the school ought to serve as an introduction to the army. How does France stand in this matter? asks Mr. Goyau.

Union of French Socialist Bodies.—In a long article in the Dutch review *Vragen des Tijds*, the history of Socialist groups in France is given. The Socialists of the French republic have agreed to combine in one great association, and the minor clubs and societies will vanish. This, says the writer, is a great step in advance, and leads to a sketch of the Blanquists and other groups that were prominent in France at various times.

The International Position of Italy.—The anonymous political contributor of the *Nuova Antologia* writes in a very pessimistic mood of the present position of Italy in regard to international politics. Italy, he declares, is the only great power that has not been able to make its influence felt in the peace negotiations between Russia and Japan, and, at the same time, she is directly menaced by any French and German disagreement over Morocco. But a still worse danger threatens her in the possibility of a conflict between England and Germany, for the foreign policy of Italy has a twofold traditional basis,—alliance with Germany over Continental questions, and a friendly understanding with England over all Mediterranean matters.

The Late Flowering of Music.—A French student, Arthur Coquard, who is writing a book on the history of music, contributes a brief survey on the subject to the *Correspondant*. He asserts that music was the first-born of the arts, and he asks why should it have been the last to bloom, attaining its complete development only at a comparatively recent date, whereas sculpture, architecture, and even painting have long ago attained perfection.



THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

ONE of the few really remarkable books of the year is Dr. C. G. Schilling's "With Flashlight and Rifle" (Harpers), edited and translated from the German by Dr. Henry Zick and illustrated from photographs taken by the author. These pictures and the accompanying text all have to do with wild-animal life in equatorial Africa. Many of the photographs were taken by flashlight, at night. They have been reproduced from the original plates without any attempt at retouching. Naturalists have said of these photographs that they reveal to us the most intimate life of the animals, which no human eye had ever before witnessed. Dr. Schilling is himself a naturalist of eminence, and his comments on the habits of the wild animals which he studied in the African wilderness are exceedingly valuable. The lion, the elephant, the zebra, the rhinoceros, and the hippopotamus, with many other native species, have become to him as common and as companionable as the gray squirrels are with us.

A bit of description of personal experiences in Jerusalem and throughout the Holy Land, told in the language of a devout woman of artistic insight, is Mme. Hyacinthe Loyson's "To Jerusalem through the Land of Islam" (Open Court Publishing Company). Mme. Loyson lived and loved and worked among Jews, Christians, and Moslems, and her style is saturated with Christian devotion.

"Two Bird-Lovers in Mexico" is the title given to an interesting volume by C. William Beebe, curator of ornithology of the New York Zoölogical Park (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In this volume Mr. Beebe tells of a journey with his wife across Mexico from Vera Cruz to the Pacific and back, covering a period of three or four months during the winter-time. The author devoted considerable attention to other forms of animal life than birds. In the last chapter, which is contributed by Mrs. Beebe, there are practical suggestions to those who wish to take such a trip as is here described, relating to the questions of supplies, clothing, and so forth. The appendix gives a list of the birds and mammals observed. The volume is illustrated from photographs taken during the trip.

Another of Mr. William Eleroy Curtis' encyclopædic but entertaining books is entitled "Modern India" (Revell). This volume contains a series of letters written by Mr. Curtis for the *Chicago Record-Herald* during the winter of 1903-04. It contains a wealth of carefully gathered and sifted information upon almost every topic concerning which any student of Indian affairs of the present day would desire to be informed. The chapter on "American Missions in India" is

especially complimentary to the work of Dr. Robert A. Hume and his efficient colleagues. The book is dedicated to Lady Curzon,—"an ideal American woman."

A description of French domestic life and conditions which is written with sympathy and enthusiasm is Miss

Betham-Edwards' "Home Life in France" (McClurg). Miss Betham-Edwards, it will be remembered, is an officer of public instruction in France, and has lived among the French people for many years. This volume is illustrated.

Readers of Mr. Jones' account of "Rural Ireland as It Is To-Day," in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, will find an entertain-



MISS BETHAM-EDWARDS.

ing study of the Emerald Isle from a different point of view in Mr. T. W. H. Crosland's little volume entitled "The Wild Irishman" (Appletons). This writer names the potato, the Scotch, and Dublin Castle as "the three bitter curses which have brought the Irish people to the ghastliest social and political passes. All three are ineradicable, but they may be mitigated. This is what Ireland wants."

A NEW BOOK ABOUT RUSSIA.

The text of Prof. Paul Milyoukov's indictment of Russia, in his recently published book "Russia and Its

Crisis" (University of Chicago Press), is found in an old French phrase: "Too feeble to govern, and yet too strong to submit to being governed." This is the fault of the Russian autocracy and of the Russian Czar. Professor Milyoukov's book consists of his lectures on Russian civilization delivered during the summer of 1903 at the University of Chicago, on the Crane Foundation. To these have



PAUL MILYUKOV.

been added several other lectures on the Russian crisis delivered at the Lowell Institute, in Boston, 1904. The whole has been thoroughly revised and brought down to the middle of the past summer. There were two names in Russia that characterized the two

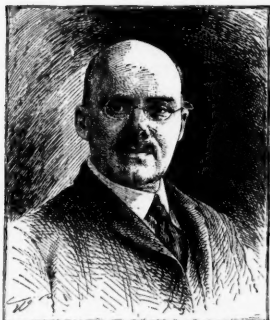


MME. HYACINTHE LOYSON.

kinds of life which are struggling for mastery in the empire,—Plehve is official Russia, “an anachronism deeply rooted in the past, and defended in the present by an omnipotent bureaucracy;” the other, Tolstoi, is “the Russia of the future, of the people, of the intellect, of the Muscovites.” “Russia and Its Crisis” is a very valuable addition to the literature on the subject of Russian conditions. The book is provided with a number of maps.

BOOKS ON ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL PROBLEMS.

It will be remembered that some of the most interesting testimony given at the hearings of the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce last spring was offered by Prof. Hugo R. Meyer, of the University of Chicago, who addressed the committee on the subject of government regulation of railroad rates. In a volume just published by the Macmillan Company, Professor Meyer gives the results of twelve years' study of the experience of the United States, Germany, France, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Australia in dealing with this intricate problem. Professor Meyer states that he entered on his inquiry with a strong bias in favor of state intervention, but that as he proceeded with the investigation he became firmly convinced of the unwisdom of government regulation of railways and railway rates. Apart from the matter of personal opinion on this subject, however, Professor Meyer's book contains much valuable material, which is summarized in a way that cannot fail to interest all students of the railroad question, whatever may be their views as to the expediency of federal legislation. The second part of the work, which is devoted to the United States exclusively, includes a full exposition of the more important decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission.



PROF. HUGO R. MEYER.

The present widespread interest in the question of railroad regulation makes timely the volume entitled “Restrictive Railway Legislation,” by Henry S. Haines (Macmillan). Mr. Haines, besides being an eminent engineer, has served as vice-president and general manager of the Plant system of railroad and steamship lines, and also as commissioner of the Southern States Freight Association, and is qualified to write ably and instructively on railroad topics. The present volume contains interesting chapters on railroad traffic, rate-making, the regulation of rates, State railroad commissions, and pending legislation affecting interstate commerce.

A little pamphlet bearing the title “For the Railroads” has been written and published by H. T. Newcomb (Bond Building, Washington, D. C.). Within the space of less than two hundred small pages, Mr. Newcomb has compressed an immense amount of material bearing on the question of federal regulation of railroads.

One of the excellent and useful volumes lately contributed to the Citizen's Library (Macmillan) is Prof. Henry C. Taylor's “Introduction to the Study of Agricultural Economics.” The very fact that such a book should be published is itself evidence of a new stage in American industrial development. The farmers of our country have been brought into close economic relations with those engaged in other industries, so that in a sense the farmer has become dependent upon the manufacturer, the merchant, and the commercial carrier. This fact has led to a more minute study of the economic basis of farming, which has been recognized in the establishment of professorships in several of our agricultural colleges and State universities. The present work may be regarded as a development along this line.

A valuable “Industrial History of the United States” has been written for use in high schools and colleges by Prof. Katharine Coman, of Wellesley College (Macmillan). While it is impossible for a one-volume work of this character to treat of every phase of our economic history in detail, the numerous marginal references enable the student to investigate for himself, while the essential elements of the story are clearly presented. The book as a whole is a model of clear statement and systematized information.

In “The City, the Hope of Democracy” (Scribners), Mr. Frederick C. Howe, of Cleveland, attempts a novel interpretation of municipal problems. Departing somewhat from the ordinary point of view

adopted by writers on municipal institutions, Mr. Howe ascribes most of the ills to which the American city is heir to economic and industrial rather than to political or ethical causes. Instead of the city being controlled by a charter, the suffrage, or other purely political institutions, Mr. Howe has become convinced that it is the economic environment which creates



FREDERICK C. HOWE

and controls man's activities as well as his attitude of mind. In the economic motive he finds an explanation of the “activity and the apathy, the heavy burden on reform, and the distrust of democracy.” Most municipal reformers have been content to accept the personal explanation of all the evils of which they complain. The effort has been to improve the individual man by education or by charity, not to improve the city by a change in industrial policy. Mr. Howe's remedy for the present evil conditions consists in offering opportunity to labor, in taxing monopoly, and in the abolition of privilege. His book is a frank discussion of municipal problems as they are actually encountered in the more typical of our American cities. The prevailing note is one of optimism.

The Committee of Fifty for the Investigation of the Liquor Problem, which was organized in 1893, has published a brief and convenient summary of its investigations, prepared by John S. Billings, Charles W.

Elliott, Henry W. Farnam, Jacob L. Greene, and Francis G. Peabody (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It has been the purpose of this committee to collect and collate, impartially, all accessible facts which bear upon the liquor problem, in order that some consensus of competent opinion might be reached that would provide a starting-point "for a rational and trustworthy method of action." Reports of its sub-committees have been published in four volumes, under the titles "The Physiological Aspects of the Liquor Problem," "The Liquor Problem in Its Legislative Aspects," "Economic Aspects of the Liquor Problem," and "Substitutes for the Saloon." A summary of the conclusions reached by these various sub-committees, as set forth in their respective reports, has been prepared for the present volume.

Mr. William E. Smythe, who has written much on the subject of irrigation in the West, is the author of a new book entitled "Constructive Democracy: The Economics of a Square Deal" (Macmillan). As remedies for present industrial evils Mr. Smythe advocates in this volume Senator Newlands' plan of railroad consolidation under government regulation, Mr. Garfield's plan to require all corporations engaged in interstate commerce to take out a federal license and so come under federal supervision, and, finally, a system of national irrigation for the development of our unused lands. Mr. Smythe makes a good presentation of these propositions, and in discussing the irrigation question especially he is quite at home. His book impresses one as the work of a keen observer of modern industrial life and a thoughtful student of its problems.

"Plunkitt of Tammany Hall" is the title of a series of plain talks on practical politics delivered by ex-Senator George Washington Plunkitt from his rostrum, the New York County Court House bootblack stand, and recorded by William L. Riordon (McClure, Phillips & Co.). These utterances as reported by Mr. Riordon in several of the New York newspapers have attracted unusual attention, because they have been recognized and accepted at once as the frank self-revelations of a typical Tammany politician. Now that they have attained the dignity of publication in book form, they are likely to be read, not only by New Yorkers, but by Americans everywhere, to whom the mystery of New York politics has a lasting fascination. Especially is there food for reflection in the ex-Senator's chapter on "Honest and Dishonest Graft." One who masters the philosophy of these charming discourses will have mastered the whole secret of New York metropolitan politics,—Tammany's secret.

"Uncle Sam and His Children" is the title given to a volume prepared by Judson Wade Shaw, the field secretary of the Young Citizens' Loyal League (Barnes). In prosecuting the work of his organization Mr. Shaw found everywhere a demand for a book that should not

simply outline the machinery of government, but should emphasize its special advantages and the duty of citizens in the use of their privileges. He has, accordingly, embodied in the present volume an account of the struggles through which the founders of the country passed, a statement of the principles that actuated them, an outline of our territory and its resources, and some discussion of the perils that threaten us and how to meet and escape them. In short, his book is a sort of elementary manual of American good-citizenship.

COLONIAL TOPICS.

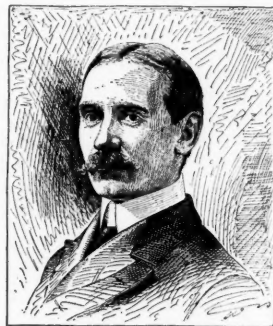
Prof. Paul S. Reinsch contributes to "The Citizen's Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology" (Macmillan) a volume on "Colonial Administration," which is rather a statement of the various problems confronting colonial governments, and an indication of the main lines of solution that have been attempted, than a complete and conclusive discussion of the principles involved. The book gives in small compass a broad survey of the most important activities of modern colonial governments, and deals with the facts of colonial administration rather than with the underlying philosophy. Such topics as education; finance; commerce; currency; banking, and credit; agriculture; the land policy; and the labor question are tersely and instructively discussed.

Of recent publications on the Philippines, one of the most useful from the point of view of the general reader is the work by Fred W. Atkinson, who was the first general superintendent of education in the islands (Ginn & Co.). While engaged in the administration of his office, Mr. Atkinson visited nearly every part of the archipelago, and enjoyed unusual opportunities for learning actual conditions in the islands. In addition to the information acquired in interviews with prominent natives and correspondence with American officials, Mr. Atkinson was enabled, by investigations in Java, China, Japan, and India, to institute comparisons

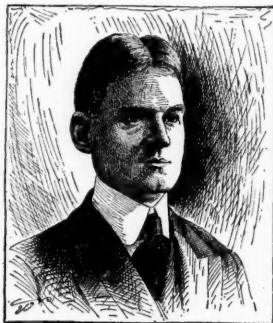
which make his present work more valuable. It has been his endeavor in this volume to exhibit the real conditions in our Philippine possessions,—geographical, economic, social, and political, including a detailed study of the characteristics of the Filipinos themselves.



WILLIAM E. SMYTHE.



PROF. PAUL S. REINSCH.



PROF. FRED W. ATKINSON.

In "Our Philippine Problem," by Henry Parker Willis (Holt), will be found an avowedly hostile criticism of the American policy in the islands. The writer spent several months during 1904 in the Philippines, traveling about twenty-seven hundred miles outside of Manila, through the provinces of central Luzon and in



BAYARD TAYLOR.

some of the southern islands. His opinions of the working of our governmental institutions in the islands had been formed before he made this brief tour of observation, while he was an editorial writer on the New York *Evening Post* and Washington correspondent of the *Springfield Republican*. The material that he gathered in the archipelago was utilized to some extent in the campaign of Judge Parker for the Presidency, but we believe that this is the first complete presentation of Mr. Willis' case against the government.

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE.

"Cambridge Sketches" is the title given to a series of personal reminiscences of distinguished citizens of Cambridge, Mass., by Frank Preston Stearns (Lippincott). Among the personalities thus sketched are Prof. Francis J. Childs, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, James Russell Lowell, C. P. Cranch, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Charles Sumner, Chevalier Howe, Gov. John A. Andrew, Elizur Wright, and W. T. G. Morton. Some of these names have attained a wider celebrity than others, but, as Mr. Stearns remarks in his preface, they all deserve well of the republic of humanity and of the age in which they lived.

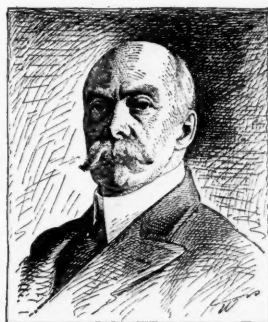
The widow of Bayard Taylor has written a book of recollections bearing the title "On Two Continents: Memories of Half a Century" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), in which are recorded many entertaining reminiscences of the American journalist, author, and diplomat, whose life was so closely associated with many of the most eminent Americans of his day. Almost all of Taylor's associates among the literary men of New York have

passed away. There were Richard Henry Stoddard, George William Curtis, Charles A. Dana, Horace Greeley, and William Cullen Bryant, not to mention a score of lesser lights, while of all the names mentioned in these reminiscences we recognize only those of Edmund Clarence Stedman and Thomas Bailey Aldrich as living to-day. Among the intimate friends of Taylor in the latter years of his life was Sidney Lanier, whose portrait has a place in the present volume.

In the "Lives of Great Writers" series (Barnes), written by Tudor Jenks, the third volume is entitled "In the Days of Milton." The point is well taken by Mr. Jenks that the England of John Milton is the England from which our own America drew its life, and that, hence, to know our own history we must know the England of that age. This little book is a story of the times of Milton, not merely a record of his own personality. It will be found extremely helpful to an understanding of the Puritan period in English history. One thing to be said of all the books of the present series is that they have a distinct point of view in the human interest of their subjects rather than in purely literary criticism.

BOOKS ADDRESSED TO YOUNG MEN.

Senator Beveridge always puts the qualities of force and imagination into everything that he says, and he has managed to write some papers for young men that are far from commonplace, while hard-headed, practical, and uplifting. Mr. Beveridge has made his own way in the world with frankness and courage, and young men will recognize what he says as having the genuine ring. His papers in the *Saturday Evening Post* were widely read, and, as revised and developed in "The Young Man and the World" (Appletons), they will not only have a present use, but will occupy a permanent place with books of their general character.



DR. ORISON SWETT MARDEN.

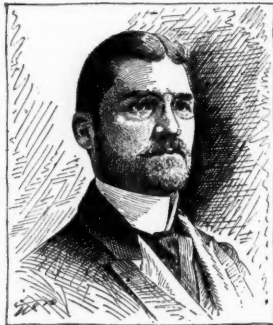
Another of Dr. Orison Swett Marden's books of encouragement for young people is "The Making of a Man" (Lothrop). Dr. Marden has already scored the success which comes of helping others in a number of books, the best known of which are "Stepping Stones," "Stepping to the Front," "Winning Out," and others. Dr. Marden's style is full of inspiration and suggestion.

William Mathews' book, "Getting On in the World," which was published thirty years ago, had great success. He has lately written a similar volume entitled "Conquering Success" (Houghton, Mifflin), also addressed to young men on the threshold of life, and written with all the author's old-time earnestness and enthusiasm. It is equipped with a wealth of anecdote and example which makes it an interesting as well as a helpful book.

"Business Philosophy" is a little volume of practical suggestions, written from personal experiences, by Benjamin F. Cobb. It is published by Crowell.

A HISTORY OF EDUCATION.

Prof. Paul Monroe's new "Text-Book in the History of Education" (Macmillan) contains far more material than has been incorporated in earlier text-books on this subject. The author undertakes especially to make evident the relation between educational development and other aspects of the history of civilization, to deal with educational tendencies rather than with men, to show the connection between educational theory and actual school work in its historical development, and to suggest relations with present educational work. So full are the lists of references for wider reading that the student provided with this book is equipped for as thorough investigation of the subject as ordinary circumstances will permit. The work is broad in range, and provides an immense accumulation of data.



PROF. PAUL MONROE.

BOOKS ABOUT THE HORSE.

Mr. John Gilmer Speed's interesting treatise on "The Horse in America" (McClure, Phillips & Co.) gives a great deal of information about the various equine types common in the United States. Mr. Speed is merciless in exposing false pedigrees. Some of his comments on the origins of famous breeds of American horses will probably be unpalatable to partisans of this or that great name in the horse world. Yet on the whole the book is reassuring to the breeder and admirer of horses. It points out the characteristics of the true thoroughbred with the unerring skill of the expert.

The volume in the "American Sportsman's Library" (Macmillan) entitled "Riding and Driving" really consists of two distinct treatises, each complete in itself. The chapters on the saddle horse, his breeding, care, and use, were written by Edward L. Anderson, the author of "Modern Horsemanship," while those relating to driving were contributed by Price Collier, a recognized expert. Both writers offer many helpful suggestions to the amateur, and not a few hints that any owner of horses may find acceptable.

THE FINE ARTS.

Mr. Charles H. Caffin, who has already done so much to make helpfully interesting the study of graphic and plastic art, has brought out (Century) "How to Study Pictures." The whole field of painting is surveyed, and a number of the most significant paintings, from Cimabue to Monet, are compared, with historical summaries and appreciations of the painters' motives and methods. The book is quite voluminous, containing more than five hundred pages, including fifty-six reproductions of well-known paintings. Mr. Caffin's aim has been to make us able to say, not only "I know what I like," but "I know *why* I like it."

A critical survey of "The Art of the National Gallery," being a critical survey of the schools and painters

as represented in the British collection, has been prepared by Julia de Wolf Addison and published by L. C. Page & Co. This is one of a series on the art galleries of Europe. Reproductions of most of the famous masters in the British Gallery complete this volume, which is very attractively printed.

In "The Art of James McNeill Whistler" (Macmillan), Messrs. T. R. Way and G. R. Dennis endeavor to point out as simply as possible, and without any unnecessary technicalities, the characteristics of Whistler's works. The short biographical chapter prefixed to this appreciation gives only the dates of certain important events in Whistler's career, avoiding personal matters. The authors have deliberately excluded anecdotes. The volume is illustrated from photographic reproductions of several of the most famous of Whistler's paintings.

LITERARY MISCELLANY.

A number of literary texts, edited and annotated for use in the schools, have been recently issued by Henry Holt & Co. Among the French texts are the "Waterloo" of Erckmann-Chatrian, abbreviated and annotated by Victor E. François; Alphonse Daudet's "Robert Helmont," edited, with introduction, by W. O. Farnsworth, and Anatole France's "Le Livre de Mon Ami," edited by O. G. Guerlac; two of the German texts are Schiller's "Der Dreissigjährige Krieg," edited by Arthur H. Palmer, and "Two German Tales" (Goethe's "Die Neue Melusine" and Zschokke's "Der Tote Gast"), edited by A. B. Nichols, and the English text (one of the Temple School Shakespeare series) being the play "King Henry V.," with notes and introduction by W. H. Hudson.

A quaint little volume is "The Only True Mother Goose Melodies" (Lee & Shepard), which is a reprint, "without addition or abridgment, also a life of the Goose family," from the original edition of 1883, published in Boston by Munroe & Francis. There is an introduction by Edward Everett Hale, and the quaint old blackwood cuts, which have delighted thousands of children for three or four generations, are reproduced.

An anthology of satire has been compiled by that industrious anthology-maker, Miss Carolyn Wells. This "Satire Anthology" (Scribners) contains most of the representative and well-known bits of this sort of literature. We do not write satire so much as did our fathers, says Miss Wells in her introduction, probably because "fads and foibles follow one another so quickly that we have neither time to write nor read satiric disquisitions about them."

"Catchwords of Cheer" is a collection of bright, comforting, helpful sayings, compiled by Sara A. Hubbard (McClurg). The first thought quoted, which gives the keynote of the collection, is Carlyle's dictum: "A friendly thought is the purest gift a man can afford to man."

We do not suppose that a collector of books ever entered deliberately on his career with any studied plan, but if such were the case he would find extremely useful for his purposes a little book recently written by Mr. J. Herbert Slater, the experienced English collector (Macmillan). This treatise, entitled "How to Collect Books," is a handbook intended to illuminate the simple phases of the study. Authorities are freely quoted, and the zealous collector is aided in various ways, both by precept and example.